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ABSTRACT

Articles are divided into two sections. Section 1, "Research and Theory, includes: "The Influence of Pronunciation Instruction on the Pronunciation of English Word-Final Consonants by Brazilian Learners" (Roseanne Silveira); "Perceptions, Interactions and Immersion: A Cross-Comparative Case Study of African-American Students' Experiences in a French Immersion Class and a Regular French Class" (Michelle Haj-Broussard); "Teachers Studying Abroad: An Analysis of Changes in Linguistic and Cultural Knowledge and Attitudes toward Spanish Culture and the Effects of Ethnographic Interviews" (Greg Thompson); "Motivation in Foreign/Second Language Learning: Some Problems and Implications" and "Learning to Teach Spanish" (Gloria Velez-Rendon). Section 2, "Teaching Tips," includes: "Dialogic Construction and Reflective Practice: A Teacher Educator's Action Research Study of Teacher as Learner" (Marjorie Haley and Sabrina Wesley-Nero); "Creating an Innovative English as a Second Language in the Workplace Program" (David Schwarzer, Clarena Loretta, and Vyacheslav Zub); "Heretical Method for Teaching Foreign Languages" (Zev Bar-Lev); and "Professional Organizations: A Comprehensive Resource List" (Felicia Rader). (Papers contain references.) (SM)

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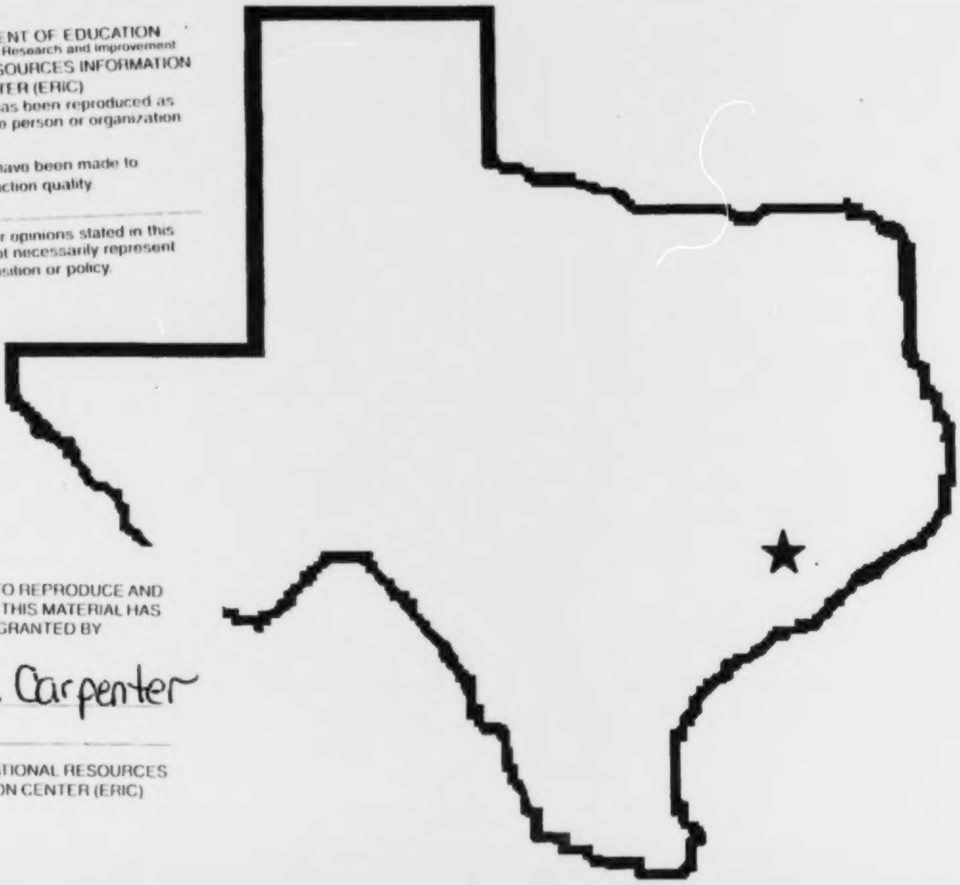

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Contributors:

ROSANE SILVEIRA, PhD student at Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina, department of Post-Graduation in English—Applied Linguistics (Brazil), and visiting student at University of California at Los Angeles. Her research interests include comparative phonology (Brazilian Portuguese and English) and pronunciation instruction methodology and materials. She has been teaching EFL and Portuguese as a second language in Brazil for the past six years.

MICHELLE HAJ-BROUSSARD is a doctoral student at Louisiana State University

GREG THOMPSON did his undergraduate work in Spanish and Math teaching at Brigham Young University. He received his masters degree from Brigham Young University in Spanish pedagogy with a linguistic ancillary. He is currently a PhD candidate in Second Language Acquisition and Teaching (SLAT) at the University of Arizona.

HYE-YEON LIM is a doctoral student at the University of Texas at Austin. She has a Masters in Linguistics and is interested in anxiety and motivation in second language learners.

SUNG-HYUN SONG Ph. D. Student in Foreign Language Education at The University of Texas at Austin. His research interests include L2 learning motivation and the effects of interesting texts on ESL/EFL reading and listening comprehension.

GLORIA VÉLEZ-RENDÓN (PhD. Purdue University, West Lafayette, 2000) is Assistant Professor of Spanish and Foreign Language Education at Purdue University Calumet. Her research interests include second language teacher education and second language writing.

MARJORIE HALL HALEY is Associate Professor of Education in the Center forMultilingual/Multicultural Education, Graduate School of Education, George Mason University, Fairfax, VA.

SABRINA WESLEY-NERO is a doctoral candidate in Multilingual/Multicultural Education, Graduate School of Education, George Mason University, Fairfax, VA.

DAVID SCHWARZER is an Assistant Professor in Multilingual Studies at the University of Texas at Austin in the school of Education. His research interests are early multiliteracy development, second and foreign language instruction, and qualitative research in language teaching.

CLARENA LARROTTA is a doctoral student at the University of Texas at Austin, she is currently teaching Spanish as a Foreign Language at the same university. She has an MA in English Education from the University of Puerto Rico. She has 12 years of experience teaching both EFL and ESL classes. Her research interest is literacy education for adult ESL students.

VYACHESLAV ZUB is a visiting Junior Faculty Development Fulbright Program scholar from Ukraine. He is currently studying issues related to assessment in foreign/second language education. He has a Specialist degree in English as a Foreign Language and Linguistics from the University of Dnipropetrovsk, Ukraine.

ZEV BAR-LEV is professor of linguistics at San Diego State University, where he teaches courses in Judaism, and where he designed the Hebrew program. His Hebrew program is also in use at UCSD and Chico State.

FELICIA RADER is a second year doctoral student at The University of Texas at Austin in the Foreign Language Education program. She has a MA in Spanish from Middlebury College. Her main research and study interests are Spanish and incorporating technology into the foreign language classroom.

THE INFLUENCE OF PRONUNCIATION INSTRUCTION ON THE PRODUCTION OF ENGLISH WORD-FINAL CONSONANTS BY BRAZILIAN LEARNERS

ROSEANNE SLIVEIRA, University of California

This paper was presented at the 2002 TEXFLEC Conference

The present research is an investigation of the role played by pronunciation instruction in the acquisition of English word-final consonants by Brazilian learners. Two groups of Brazilians studying English in an EFL course participated in this study. One group was chosen as the experimental group and the other group was the control group. The material used during the period of instruction was intended to (a) be appropriate for the teaching of pronunciation of word-final consonants to beginning Brazilian learners; and (b) be based on the results yielded by research in the area of interphonology, taking into account the role of L1 interference, the different syllabic patterns of English and Brazilian Portuguese, and the various degrees of difficulty posed by different word-final consonants in different environments. The main objective was to test the effects of pronunciation instruction by designing a pronunciation manual based on a communicative framework, which was introduced and integrated with the existing language syllabus.

INTRODUCTION

Pronunciation instruction was absent from the second/foreign language (L2)' classroom for a long time due to conventional beliefs that pronunciation is not important, can be "picked up" by learners, and is difficult to teach. These beliefs have been questioned and pronunciation teaching has undergone a shift, so that nowadays, its frameworks may encompass not only linguistic competence, but also discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence (Morley, 1994).

Morley (1991, 1994) proposes a multidimensional curriculum designed for teaching speaking skills and pronunciation together. Such a curriculum incorporates a focus on microlevel speech production (e.g., vowel and consonant production, stress, rhythm and intonation), and on macrolevel speech performance (e.g., non-verbal behavior, command of grammar and vocabulary, fluency, and intelligibility).

As Morley (1991) points out, the pronunciation curriculum has to be based on realistic goals. Therefore, a curriculum that sets out to develop learners' native-like pronunciation is destined to frustrate both learners and instructors, especially if the learners have started learning the L2 after the age of puberty. Morley proposes four realistic learner goals for pronunciation teaching: (a) functional intelligibility, (b) functional communicability, (c) increased self-confidence, and (d) speech monitoring abilities and speech modification strategies for use beyond the classroom. In order to implement theses goals, we need to develop pronunciation and speech methodologies, techniques and materials. Moreover, it is necessary to have controlled studies that investigate the effects of specific pronunciation teaching procedures on the development of learners' pronunciation. The present study focuses on these two needs in the area of pronunciation instruction.

Studies on the effects of pronunciation instruction have addressed different issues: (a) testing the validity of a multimodal methodology (Elliot, 1995; Quijada, 1997), (b) using more controlled teaching techniques (Neufeld, 1977; Strange & Dittman 1984; Jameson & Morosan, 1986), (c) using silent practice as a means to develop perceptual (Mathews, 1997) and productive skills (Neufeld, 1977), (d) testing the effect of immediate feedback (Jameson & Morosan, 1986; Strange & Dittmann, 1984; Mathews, 1997), (e) linking pronunciation to the normal language curriculum (Quijada, 1997), and (f) checking the effect of explicit instruction and visual demonstration of sound articulation (Mathews, 1997). In addition to these issues, some studies have compared the effectiveness of different types of instruction (Macdonald, Yule & Powers, 1994) and checked the delayed effects of pronunciation instruction (Yule, Hoffman & Damico, 1987; Macdonald et al., 1994). The studies mentioned so far are insufficient to provide a conclusive answer about the role played by instruction in the development of pronunciation. While some of the studies indicate that instruction is ineffective (e.g., Macdonald et al., 1994; Quijada, 1997), others argue the opposite (e.g., Elliot, 1995; Mathews, 1997).

The area of pronunciation instruction is controversial also in regard to materials design. An analysis of textbooks (which include pronunciation) and pronunciation manuals used to teach English in Brazil shows that these materials stop short of following a communicative approach to pronunciation teaching, that is, of emphasizing communicability and intelligibility (e.g., O'Neil, Mugglestone & Anger, 1992; Richards, Hull & Proctor, 1990, 1997; Prator & Robinet, 1985; Orion, 1987; Hagen & Grogan, 1992; Gilbert, 1993; Hewings, 1993).

As regards content selection, most textbooks and pronunciation manuals analyzed ignore a factor that is extremely relevant to pronunciation teaching—the role played by the learner's L1. This is certainly connected with economic factors, for these textbooks and manuals are published to be used in mixed ESL (English as a second language) and EFL (English as a foreign language) classes all over the world. Thus, there is a need for books published in the country where they will be used, and these books should take into account the L1 factor. The literature in the area of second/foreign language acquisition shows that the learner's L1 is a major factor in the acquisition of the L2 phonetic system (e.g., Major, 1994; Carlisle, 1994; Rebello, 1997; Baptista & Silva Filho, 1997). Some studies have shown that learners tend to build their L2 phonetic system upon the L1 system (e.g., Flege, 1987; Baptista, 1992), which makes it difficult for learners to acquire certain features that are somehow different in the L1 and the L2. It seems that a way of trying to cope with this problem is to make learners aware of the differences between the two phonetic systems, as well as show how the inappropriate transfer of L1 system features can hinder communication in the L2. This could help learners realize why they have difficulty making themselves understood while speaking the L2, and hopefully make them more motivated to improve their pronunciation. In addition to motivation, pronunciation teaching should provide learners with activities to minimize the effects of L1 interference and maximize the transfer of features that are common to the L1 and the L2.

Designing pronunciation materials that take into account the learner's L1 requires the careful integration of findings provided by studies in the area of interphonology. In the case of learners whose L1 is Brazilian Portuguese, research has shown that the acquisition of English syllabic patterns is a major difficulty (Fernandes, 1997; Rebello, 1997; Baptista & Silva Filho, 1997; Koerich, 2000). For these learners, the production of certain word-final consonants has proved to be difficult. The difficulty posed by these word-final consonants seems to be related to the differences between English and Brazilian Portuguese (BP) syllable-inventories. In English, all consonants, except for /h/, can appear in word-final position. Conversely, in BP there are severe restrictions regarding the consonants that can appear in word-final position: /r/, /l/, /m/ and /s/, where /r/ tends to be deleted or pronounced as [x] (e.g., comer "eat" [ko'mex]) and /m/ loses its consonantal feature with the preceding vowel assimilating its nasal feature (e.g., sem "without" [se"].) As for /l/, it is generally realized as [w], or more rarely, as [ℜ]" (e.g., mal "bad" [maw] or [maℜ]). The glides /w/ and /y/ occur without restrictions in word-final position in BP. Due to these constraints on the learners' L1 syllable structure, Brazilian learners of English tend to resort to the epenthetic vowel /i/ or /e/ (Câmara, 1970) to pronounce consonant clusters not permitted in the L1; and the same process takes place in the L2.

In the L1, this process can be exemplified by the pronunciation of the words substituir "substitute" and advogado " lawyer". In BP, these words are separated into syllables as follows: subs-ti-tu-ir (four syllables), and ad-vo-ga-do (four syllables) (Michaellis, 1998). However, the cluster "bs" and the consonant sequence "dv" are unacceptable segments in the phonology of BP, and this is reflected in the pronunciation of such clusters and segments in normal speech: [su.bis.tSi.tu.'ix] (five syllables) and [a.dZi.vo.'ga.du])" (five syllables).

Native speakers of BP also resort to an epenthetic vowel to pronounce consonant clusters and final consonants that are not permitted in their L1 with words borrowed from other languages, as illustrated by the English words below:

"club":	clube	['klubi]
"game":	game	['geymi]
"stress":	estresse	[is'trEsi]

Besides, vowel epenthesis is also found in the interlanguage of Brazilian learners of English, and this is illustrated by their pronunciation of words such as "tape" ['teypi], "wife" ['wayfi], and "hush" ['h℘Si].

As we have seen, vowel epenthesis is a very frequent syllable simplification strategy in BP. This strategy can be resorted to with word-final consonants that are not permitted in BP, initial clusters (stop: [iş'tap]), medial clusters (MacDonald: [mEki'donawdi]), as well as final clusters (faced: ['feisid]). Baptista and Silva Filho (1997) propose a hierarchy of difficulty for word-final consonants that takes into account the natural class of the target segments following the word-final consonant (1=least difficult and 4=most difficult):

1. Nasal sonorants (/m/, /n/, /N/)
2. Stops (/p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/), and within this category, first the bilabials, followed by the alveolars and the velars.
3. Fricatives (/f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /S/, /Z/)
4. Affricates (/tS/, /dZ/)

Note that within the category of stops, the bilabials are less marked, therefore less difficult to produce, than the alveolars, or velars. As regards voicing, for almost all voiced/voiceless pairs, the voiced consonant in these pairs causes more epenthesis. In addition to (a) voicing, (b) place of articulation, and (c) manner of articulation, environment can contribute to making the pronunciation of final consonants more difficult. In Baptista and Silva Filho (1997), word-final consonants are most difficult to pronounce when followed by a consonant; somewhat easier when followed by a vowel, and easiest when followed by a pause.

Therefore, the acquisition of syllabic patterns, especially of word-final consonants, by Brazilian learners, is an important topic for research, and the results of this research are extremely relevant to the teaching of English pronunciation. Equally important is the investigation of the role played by instruction in the development of L2 learners' pronunciation. Therefore, the present research sets out to investigate the role played by pronunciation instruction in the acquisition of English word-final consonants by Brazilian learners.

It is hypothesized that pronunciation instruction, based on the communicative framework proposed by Celce-Murcia, Goodwin and Brinton (1996), can help these learners to reduce the frequency of vowel epenthesis in the production of word-final consonants. The use of an epenthetic vowel modifies the rhythm of the English language, since it creates an additional syllable, which might also result in word-stress alternation. This affects comprehension by native speakers of English, which is highly dependent on rhythm (Rebello, 1997, Garcia, 1990).

Thus, testing the effects of pronunciation instruction on the acquisition of word-final consonants is a good opportunity to connect theory and practice and to contribute to the understanding of controversial issues in the area of second language acquisition and teaching, more specifically in the area of interphonology—the study of interlanguage phonology.

THE PRESENT STUDY

The present research is an investigation of the role played by pronunciation instruction in the acquisition of English word-final consonants by Brazilian learners. The study consists of an experiment involving a pretest, followed by a period of instruction, and a posttest. For the instructional period, the researcher elaborated a pronunciation manual, which contains activities that aim at minimizing the production of an epenthetic vowel in the pronunciation of word-final consonants. More specifically, the study aimed at developing materials that (a) are appropriate for the teaching of pronunciation of word-final consonants to beginning Brazilian learners; and (b) are based on the results yielded by research in the area of interphonology, taking into account the role of L1 interference, the different syllabic patterns of English and Brazilian Portuguese, and the various degrees of difficulty posed by different word-final consonants in different environments (Baptista & Silva Filho, 1997; Silva Filho, 1998). Another objective was to test the effects of pronunciation instruction by employing the framework suggested by Celce-Murcia et al. (1996), which is based on the Communicative Approach to second language teaching.

METHOD

Participants

Two groups of Brazilians studying English in the Extracurricular course (level 1) at the Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina participated in this study. The group taught by the researcher was assigned as the Experimental Group, while the group taught by another instructor was the Control Group. The subjects of both groups were mostly undergraduate students from several different courses, and a few were high school students. Only those students who took both the pre and the posttests participated in the study[iv]. The Experimental Group consisted of 9 students, 6 females and 3 males, their age ranging from 17 to 23 (M = 19,8; SD = 2). This group received, during part of their normal class time, eleven weeks of instruction based on the pronunciation manual. The Control Group was composed of 13 students, 9 females and 4 males, their ages ranging from 15 to 27 (M = 17,5; SD = 2,1). The subjects in this group did not receive any kind of instruction regarding the pronunciation aspects investigated in the present study. Both groups used New Interchange I (Richards, Hull, & Proctor, 1997) as their textbook. The Experimental Group had classes in the evening, while the Control Group had classes in the afternoon.

Pretest/Posttest

The task for the pretest and the posttest consisted of the same set of sentences containing target words with word-final consonants. At the time of the pretest, the subjects also answered a short questionnaire to provide personal information such as name, age, birthplace and language learning experience. The selection of target segments and environment took into consideration Baptista and Silva Filho's (1997) results. Four different versions of the pre and posttest were prepared, in which the same sentences were randomly distributed. The pre/posttests contained 65 sentences, each one containing a word with a target consonant. The target consonants included in the study were: /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /f/, /v/, /dZ/, /m/, /n/, /N/.

The remaining consonant sounds that can occupy word final position in English were excluded either because they are known to cause additional difficulties for Brazilian learners due to spelling interference or articulation difficulties (/r/, /l/, /D/, and /T/) or for being very infrequent in word-final position (/Z/). The sounds /s/ and /z/ were not tested because they are allowed as word-final consonant codas in Brazilian Portuguese. Initially, the study included the sounds /S/ and /tS/, but they were eliminated from the final analysis due to the extremely low rate of epenthesis they yielded.[v]

Eight target sounds were tested six times, while the remaining four were tested three times each, giving a total of 59 tokens[vi]. The sounds that were tested six times included two target words: one ending in a consonantal grapheme and one ending in the same grapheme followed by a silent "e" (e.g., the sound /d/ was tested 3 times with the target word "mad" and 3 times with the word "made"). The inclusion of words containing a silent "e" was intended to test whether this could be an additional difficulty affecting the pronunciation of word-final consonants. Unfortunately, the sounds /g/ and /N/ could not be tested in the silent "e" condition, since they do not occur in this context (e.g., the letter "g", when followed by an "e" is pronounced as /dZ/), and /v/ and /dZ/ were tested only in the silent "e" environment, equally due to spelling/sound limitations. Two additional criteria for the selection of the words carrying the target sounds were that they should be monosyllabic and that the target consonant should be preceded by a vowel. Thus, the target consonants were tested in the following environments: V__V (between vowels, e.g., "There is a nice club over there.") – 20 sentences; V__C (preceded by a vowel and followed by a consonant, e.g., "He goes to the club to dance.") – 20 sentences; V__# (preceded by a vowel and followed by a pause, e.g., "I'm going to the club.") – 19 sentences. The vowel sounds following the target consonants were: /oU/, Θ/, /E/,↔/, and //, although most of these sounds were generally pronounced somewhat differently by the subjects; for example, /oU/ was pronounced as [o], /Θ/ as [E], and /↔/ as [a]. The consonant sounds following the target consonants were: /p/, /t/, /k/, /v/, /f/, /s/, /h/, /D/, /m/, /n/, and /l/, but the subjects tended to pronounce [D] as [d].

Pronunciation Manual

The pronunciation manual was used with the experimental group, together with the textbook New Interchange I during the instructional period. The manual content was limited to activities that tried to show learners, indirectly and directly, the differences between English and Brazilian Portuguese syllabic patterns for word-final position, and how the use of an epenthetic vowel is an erroneous way to overcome the articulatory problems posed by these differences. The practice activities focused on the 12 word-final consonants that were investigated in the pre/posttest task (see Appendix A).

The manual was organized according to the communicative framework suggested by Celce-Murcia et al. (1996). According to this framework, ideally the pronunciation lesson should consist of five steps: (a) description and analysis; (b) listening discrimination; (c) controlled practice and feedback; (d) guided practice with feedback; and (e) communicative practice and feedback. The activities in the manual were organized according to this framework, with an attempt to integrate the pronunciation component with the remaining language syllabus in terms of grammar and vocabulary and in respect to the learners' level of proficiency. All instructions and explanation regarding pronunciation present in the manual and given in class were in Portuguese.

DATA COLLECTION

The pretest was administered in the second class meeting after the course began, before the pronunciation instruction period for the experimental group started. First, the subjects were asked to speak for one to two minutes in Portuguese in order to verify whether they had any speech problems that could affect the present study. This procedure indicated that one subject from the experimental group had problems distinguishing between voiced and voiceless consonants, and she was eliminated from the study. Before starting the test, the subjects answered the short questionnaire previously described. After recording the speech sample in Portuguese, the subjects took the pretest, which consisted of reading the set of short sentences also described in the Pretest/Posttest section. Their reading was recorded on an audiocassette tape, in a Sony LLC-4500MKZ laboratory. One week after the instructional period with the experimental group was over; the posttest was given to both the experimental and the control groups. The posttest task was the same used for the pretest. In addition to the comparison of the pretest and the posttest results, the study included a comparison of the subjects in the two groups' on one of their written test scores, which were used as the main criterion to evaluate the learners in the language course. This additional comparison was expected to indicate whether the experimental group lagged behind in their knowledge of grammar, listening comprehension skills, and vocabulary, since part of their class time was used to provide pronunciation instruction. All the subjects were enrolled in the first level of an eight-level language course, which means that they either failed the placement test to enroll in more advanced levels, or simply chose not to take the exam. Unfortunately, the subjects did not receive a standardized pretest to assess their initial proficiency regarding their knowledge of English grammar, vocabulary, and listening comprehension skills.

The instructional period started in the first class meeting after the administration of the pretest and was restricted to the experimental group. The focus of the pronunciation instruction was on English syllabic patterns, and its objective was to reduce the occurrence of epenthetic vowels in the production of words containing word-final consonants. The material on which the instruction was based on was the pronunciation manual described previously. The manual was designed following the communicative framework proposed by Celce-Murcia et al. (1996).

The experiment was carried out during a 45-hour language course, taught in one semester and divided into 30 meetings. The classes met twice a week and each session took an hour and a half. For the experimental group, the classes including the pronunciation component were alternated with the general language classes, taking about 30-40 minutes of 10 class meetings during a period of three months. Thus, the total pronunciation instruction time was about 6 hours. Although the activities in the manual focused on pronunciation, because of the integration of this manual with the textbook, they were also an opportunity to practice or revise part of the content presented in the textbook that was used as the main material in the course.

The target words of each sentence produced by all the control and experimental subjects, and their immediate environments, were transcribed phonetically. The data were tabulated and submitted to statistical treatment[vii], with an alpha level of .05. The results reported in the following section address the variables: (a) syllable simplification strategy, (b) pronunciation instruction, (c) markedness of the segments that appear in word-final position (sonority, place and manner of articulation, voicing, and the following environment), (d) orthography, and (e) scores in the written exam.[viii]

RESULTS

The analysis of the data was guided by the following research questions:

(1) What are the main strategies of syllable simplification used by Brazilian learners to produce word-final consonants?

(2) Does pronunciation instruction affect the acquisition of English word-final consonants by Brazilian learners?

(3) Are sonority, voicing, place and manner of articulation relevant criteria to predict the difficulty of word-final consonants?

(4) Can the environment following word-final consonants affect their acquisition?

(5) Does orthography affect the difficulty of production of word-final consonants?

(6) Can pronunciation teaching take too much time away from the rest of the syllabus and, thus interfere with the learning of the rest of the course content?

Strategies of Syllable Simplification

Tables 1 and 2 show that the main strategy of syllable simplification used by the subjects in the production of word-final consonants was epenthesis (experimental group:

pretest = 41.3%, posttest = 22.6%; control group: pretest = 34%, posttest = 33.2%). In addition to epenthesis, the subjects occasionally resorted to devoicing, deletion and substitution of the target consonants. Table 2 compares the rates of epenthesis and devoicing for the voiced obstruents. It shows that there were only a few instances of devoicing for both the experimental group (pretest = 3.7%, posttest = 4.8%) and the control group (pretest = 9.9%, posttest = 6.5%). Deletion with assimilation of the nasal feature to the preceding vowel was a common strategy with the bilabial and alveolar nasals, while substitution was very common with the alveolar stops, the velar nasals, and the voiced palatal affricate, where /t/ and /d/ were frequently pronounced as [tS] or [ts] and [dZ] or [dz], respectively; /N/ as [Ng], and /dZ/ as [Z]. The pronunciation of /t/ and /d/ as affricates is a L1 phonological process found in many Portuguese dialects; the deletion of nasals with assimilation of the nasal feature to the preceding vowel and the pronunciation of /dZ/ as [Z] result from transfer of L1 spelling rules, and the addition of /g/ after /N/ indicates lack of knowledge of the English spelling rules which say that "g" is not pronounced in certain contexts.

Table 1 Frequency of epenthesis per consonant in the pre and posttests of the experimental and control groups (voiced and voiceless consonants).

	Experimental		Control	
	pre	post	pre	Post
Total	219	120	261	255
	(41.3)	(22.6)	(34.0)	(33.2)
Mean	19.8	10.8	23.6	22.9
SD	9.7	4.6	12.8	10.6

* Epenthesis: N (total number of consonants) = 531 (experimental group); 767 (control group)

* Percentages in parenthesis. The means were obtained by multiplying the number of tokens for each target consonant by the number of occurrences of epenthesis for that consonant. The products were then added together and the sum was divided by the total number of tokens for all target consonants.

Table 2. Frequency of epenthesis and devoicing per consonant in the pre and posttests of the experimental and control groups (voiced obstruents only).

	Experimental				Control			
	pre		post		pre		Post	
	epenth	devoic	epenth	devoic	epenth	devoic	epenth	devo
Total	87	7	40	9	86	27	83	18
	(46.6)	(3.7)	(21.2)	(4.8)	(31.5)	(9.9)	(30.4)	(6.5
Mean	19.7	1.4	8.8	1.9	19.3	5.4	19.0	3.7
SD	10.0	1.7	2.9	2.5	8.6	5.4	5.2	3.0

* N (total number of consonants) = 189 (experimental group); 273 (control group)

* Percentages in parenthesis. The means were obtained by multiplying the number of tokens for each target consonant by the number of occurrences of epenthesis for that consonant. The products were then added together and the sum was divided by the total number of tokens for all target consonants.

As observed by researchers in the area of interphonology (e.g., Yavas, 1994), the devoicing of word-final consonants is a phonological process found even in the speech of English native speakers. Therefore, L2 learners' devoicing of word-final consonants is likely to cause fewer communication problems for native speakers than epenthesis, which is not a common process in the speech of English native speakers in the mentioned context. Therefore, devoicing was not considered an error in the present study. Moreover, due to the limited contexts where deletion and substitution were frequent, and to the fact that substitution was often accompanied by epenthesis, these two strategies were also disregarded by the present study, which focused on the use of epenthesis as a syllable simplification strategy. This decision is also coherent with the content of the pronunciation manual used with the experimental group, whose activities emphasized the importance of avoiding vowel epenthesis in the production of word-final consonants.

Pronunciation Instruction

The crucial question guiding the present study was whether pronunciation instruction can help learners in the process of acquiring word-final consonants that are not present in the L1. As we have seen, the main strategy of syllable simplification used by the subjects to produce English word-final consonants was vowel epenthesis. The present study aimed at helping the experimental group subjects to gain awareness of the inadequacy of resorting to epenthesis when pronouncing word-final consonants. Table 1 shows the rates of epenthesis for the experimental and the control groups for voiced and voiceless consonants, in the pre and posttests. In the pretest, the rates were slightly higher for the experimental group than for the control group, but this difference was not significant, as demonstrated by a two-tailed t-test for two independent samples with different sizes. This test indicated that the two groups were similar (p = .28) before the period of instruction began. In the posttest, only the experimental group's rate of epenthesis per consonant dropped significantly, as demonstrated by the one-tailed t-test for matched pairs (p = .001), while the control group's rate remained almost the same (p = .37).

Another way of checking the effectiveness of pronunciation instruction is by testing the reduction of epenthesis rates per subject. A positive answer regarding the effectiveness of pronunciation instruction would be obtained if the subjects of the experimental group significantly reduced the frequency of epenthesis in the posttest, compared to the control group. However, due to the small number of subjects, only descriptive statistics was used to illustrate the progress made by the experimental group. As can be seen from Table 3, the pretest mean frequency per subject of the experimental group (M = 24.3; SD = 8.8) was a little higher than that of the control group (M = 20.08; SD = 10.6) groups before the instruction began. The results of the posttest indicated that the epenthesis rate of the experimental group decreased dramatically after the instruction (M = 13.3; SD = 7.8), while for the experimental group it remained very similar (M = 19.6; SD = 12.7). Moreover, Table 3 shows that the pronunciation instruction helped all subjects in the experimental group reduce the frequency of epenthesis in the production of word-final consonants.

Table 3. Subjects' epenthesis rates in the pre and posttest.

Subjects	Pretest		Posttest		Method
S3	9	15.3	6	10.2	1
S4	36	61.0	27	45.8	1
S5	27	45.8	22	37.3	1
S6	19	32.2	7	11.9	1
S7	21	35.6	8	13.6	1
S11	23	39.0	7	11.9	1
S12	18	30.5	10	16.9	1
S15	31	52.5	12	20.3	1
S16	35	59.3	21	35.6	1
S19	39	66.1	43	72.9	2
S20	23	39.0	15	25.4	2
S21	8	13.6	15	25.4	2
S22	26	44.1	10	16.9	2
S23	12	20.3	8	13.6	2
S24	29	49.2	43	72.9	2
S25	12	20.3	8	13.6	2
S26	26	44.1	21	35.6	2
S28	19	32.2	22	37.3	2
S30	2	3.4	4	6.8	2
S33	12	20.3	14	23.7	2
S38	33	55.9	32	54.2	2
S39	20	33.9	20	33.9	2

* Percentages in italics. Method: 1 = experimental, 2 = control. N (maximum number of consonants subject to epenthesis) = 59

The average progress made by the subjects in the experimental group (M = 11; SD = 5.2) is almost 20 times larger than the control group (M = .46; SD = 7.4). However, it is important to mention that at least 6 subjects in the control group also reduced somewhat the rates of epenthesis. Although the average improvement of these 6 subjects (7.2 percentage points) was much lower than that of the 9 subjects in the experimental group

(28.0 percentage points), these results seem to indicate that other factors might have contributed to help the subjects to achieve a more English-like pronunciation of the target consonants.

Hierarchies of difficulty

Table 4 shows the relationship between the individual consonants and the experimental and the control groups in the pre and posttests. As can be seen, /k/ was definitely the most difficult consonant for both the experimental and the control groups, and /f/ and /n/ tended to be the easiest.

In regards to sonority, the results in Table 4 indicate that there is considerable variation in the degree of difficulty posed by each of the twelve consonants for both the experimental and the control groups, in the pre and posttests. It is difficult to establish a hierarchy of difficulty for word-final consonants based on the limited data gathered by this study, owing to the reduced number of subjects and tokens tested, and the major role played by individual differences.

Table 4. Number of occurrences of epenthesis in the experimental and control groups in the pre and posttests for each consonant.

	Experimental			Control		
	pre	post	N*	pre	post	N*
/p/	6	9	45	19	22	65
	(13.3)	(20.0)		(29.2)	(33.8)	
/b/	20	13	54	17	23	78
	(37.0)	(24.1)		(21.8)	(29.5)	
/t/	28	11	54	33	24	78
	(51.9)	(20.4)		(42.3)	(30.8)	
/d/	31	9	54	32	24	78
	(57.4)	(16.7)		(41.0)	(30.8)	
/k/	39	21	54	55	51	78
	(72.2)	(38.9)		(70.5)	(65.4)	
/g/	10	8	27	13	15	39
	(37.0)	(29.6)		(33.3)	(38.5)	

/f/	19	6	54	14	18	78
	(35.2)	(11.1)		(17.9)	(23.1)	
/v/	10	6	27	15	14	39
	(37.0)	(22.2)		(38.5)	(35.9)	
/dZ/	16	4	27	9	7	39
	(59.3)	(14.8)		(23.1)	(17.9)	
/m/	20	13	54	24	22	78
	(37.0)	(24.1)		(30.8)	(28.2)	
/n/	11	13	54	15	19	78
	(20.4)	(24.1)		(19.2)	(24.4)	
/N/	9	7	27	15	16	39
	(33.3)	(25.9)		(38.5)	(41.0)	

* N = total number of occurrence of each target consonant

Table 5 presents the frequency of epenthesis in relation to sonority, voicing and place and manner of articulation. Nevertheless, the results in Table 5 indicate that the voiced and voiceless obstruents triggered more epenthesis than the nasals in the pretest of the experimental group, and in the pre and posttests of the control group. However, in the posttest of the experimental group, the nasals triggered slightly more epenthesis than the obstruents, and the difference between the two categories was almost neutralized.

As can be seen in Table 5, among the oral and nasal stops together, the velars (53.7%), followed by the alveolars (43.2%), were the most difficult ones for the experimental group in the pretest. In the posttest, the epenthesis rates of the velars (33.3%) continued to be the highest, but the bilabials (22.9%) yielded slightly more epenthesis than the alveolars (20.4%) for the experimental group. The control group performed in a similar manner, with the velars being the most difficult (53.2%), followed by alveolars (34.2%) and bilabials (27.1%) in the pretest. In the posttest, the velars continued to yield the highest epenthesis rates (52.6%), followed by the bilabials (30.3%) and the alveolars (28.6%) again.

Table 5. Frequency of epenthesis in relation to the natural classes for the experimental and control groups in the pre and posttests.

	Experimental			Control		
	pre	post	N*	pre	post	N*
Voiced obstruents	87 (46.0)	40 (21.2)	189	86 (31.5)	83 (30.4)	273
Voiceless obstruents	92 (44.4)	47 (22.7)	207	121 (40.5)	115 (38.5)	299
Nasals	40 (29.6)	33 (24.4)	135	54 (27.7)	57 (29.2)	195
Oral stops	134 (46.5)	71 (24.7)	288	169 (40.6)	159 (38.2)	416
Labiodental fricatives	29 (35.8)	12 (14.8)	81	29 (24.8)	32 (27.4)	117
Palatal affricates	16 (59.3)	4 (14.8)	27	9 (23.1)	7 (17.9)	39
Bilabials	46 (30.1)	35 (22.9)	153	60 (27.1)	67 (30.3)	221
Alveolars	70 (43.2)	33 (20.4)	162	80 (34.2)	67 (28.6)	234
Velars	58 (53.7)	36 (33.3)	108	83 (53.2)	82 (52.6)	156

* N = total number of occurrence of each consonant per class

* Percentages in parenthesis.

In relation to the nasals, the experimental group yielded the highest epenthesis rates with the bilabial, followed by the velar and the alveolar in the pretest. In the posttest, the epenthesis rates decreased for the bilabial (12.9 percentage points) and velar (7.4 percentage points) nasals, but not for the alveolar nasal. Actually, in the experimental group posttest, the differences among the three nasals were neutralized. For the control group, the velar nasal triggered higher epenthesis rates, followed by the bilabial and the alveolar nasals in the pretest. In the posttest this tendency remained, and the changes in epenthesis rates were minor.

In summary, the present study cannot support or disprove Baptista and Silva Filho's (1997) results regarding the effects of sonority, voicing, place and manner of articulation as relevant criteria to predict the order of difficulty of word-final consonants for Brazilian learners. The reasons for the disagreement might be two-fold. First, the present study dealt exclusively with beginning learners, while Baptista and Silva Filho dealt with learners of several different proficiency levels. Second, this study used a limited number of tokens (3 to 6) and only 1 or 2 different words to test each target consonant, whereas Baptista and Silva Filho had 27 tokens for each target consonant. However, the results indicate that the differences between some of the natural classes (obstruents/nasals, bilabials/alveolars, stops/fricatives/affricates) seem to have been mostly neutralized after pronunciation instruction.

The following environment

The results displayed in Tables 6 and 7 shed some light on the way the environment surrounding word-final consonants affects their production. The tables show that, in the pretest and the posttest for both groups, the context _#V yielded higher epenthesis rates than the contexts _# and _#C, which yielded similar epenthesis rates in all four situations. Table 6 also shows that, although in the posttest the experimental group's rate of epenthesis dropped considerably in all of the three contexts, the period of instruction did not seem to affect the order of difficulty of the environments, with _#V remaining as the most difficult. For the control group (Table 7), the epenthesis rates in the posttest remained similar to the pretest in all contexts. These results are contrary to Baptista and Silva Filho's (1997), since in their study the context _#C was found to yield the highest epenthesis rates.

Table 6. Experimental group's frequency of epenthesis in the pre and posttest, according to target consonants and their following contexts.

	Experimental					
	pre			post		
	_#	_#V	_#C	_#	_#V	_#C
Total	63	94	56	22	61	28
	(36.8)	(52.2)	(32.1)	(12.9)	(33.9)	(15.6)

*Percentages in parenthesis.

* N (total number of consonants per context) = _# (171), _#V (180), _#C (180)

Table 7. Control group's frequency of epenthesis in the pre and posttest, according to target consonants and their following contexts.

Control					
pre			post		
_#	_#V	_#C	_#	_#V	_#C
75	102	65	69	101	63
(30.4)	(39.2)	(25.0)	(27.9)	(38.8)	(24.2)

*Percentages in parenthesis.

* N (total number of consonants per context) = _# (247), _#V (260), _#C (260)

Orthography

Table 8 displays the frequency of epenthesis in relation to orthography by including only the consonants that were tested in the two contexts: with a target word ending with a consonantal grapheme (e.g., mad) and with a target word ending in the same grapheme followed by a silent "e" (e.g., made). A total of eight consonants appeared in both contexts: /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /t/, /m/, /n/. The results indicate that th factor orthography plays an important role in the frequency of epenthesis in the production of word-final consonants by Brazilian learners of English. For both the experimental and the control groups, it is clear that the words containing the silent "e" triggered more epenthesis than those that ended with the consonantal grapheme. This is especially true for the nasals, which, when not spelled with a silent "e", tended to undergo another L1 process, namely, the deletion of the final consonant and the nasalization of the preceding vowel, thus eliminating the context for the occurrence of epenthesis. In the posttest, there was a reduction in the epenthesis rate in both the words ending in a consonantal grapheme and the words ending in the same grapheme followed by a silent "e" for the experimental group, while for the control group the rates remained very similar in both contexts. Once again the instruction led to less frequent epenthesis, but did not affect the relative difficulty of the words ending in silent "e" compared to those without.

Table 8. Frequency of epenthesis in relation orthography for the experimental and the control groups in the pre and posttest.

	Experimental				Control			
	pre		post		pre		post	
	C	Ce	C	Ce	C	Ce	C	Ce
Total	63	111	26	69	83	126	81	122
	(29.2)	(53.6)	(12.0)	(33.3)	(26.6)	(42.1)	(26.0)	(40.8)

* Percentages in italics.

* N (total number of consonants) = experimental group: C (216) and Ce (207) control group: C (312) and Ce (299)

Pronunciation Instruction and the Language Syllabus

Finally, the last research question was whether pronunciation instruction interfered with learning by taking too much time away from the rest of the syllabus and, thus interfering with the learning of the rest of the course content by the experimental group subjects. This was checked by making a comparison between the two groups' performance on one of the two written tests that were used as the main criterion to evaluate the learners in the language course. This additional comparison indicated that the experimental group did not lag behind in their knowledge of grammar, listening comprehension skills, and vocabulary, since their mean in the first exam was even higher (M = 9.29; SD = 0.38) than the one obtained by the control group (M = 8.25; SD = 1.12).

DISCUSSION

The present study was designed to test the effect of pronunciation instruction in the acquisition of word-final consonants. In addition, the study aimed at testing some results obtained in previous studies regarding the acquisition of word-final consonants.

The crucial question guiding the present study was whether pronunciation instruction could facilitate the acquisition of word-final consonants. The results obtained by this study point to a positive answer to this question, since the experimental group presented lower epenthesis rates after receiving pronunciation instruction, contrary to the control group, whose epenthesis rates were very similar in the pre and posttest. Furthermore, all subjects in the experimental group reduced their epenthesis rates in the posttest, while only 6 of the 13 subjects in the control group did. And the epenthesis rates were reduced for 10 out of 12 target consonants in the experimental group, and for only 6 of the consonants in the control group. It is important to point out that the experimental group epenthesis rate reductions per consonant were significant, but the same was not true for the control group. Moreover, the experimental group's epenthesis rates per subject reduced considerably, contrary to the control group; but due to sample size limitations, the significance of these reductions could not be assessed.

Corroborating the results of Baptista and Silva Filho's (1997) study, the present study found that epenthesis was the most frequent syllable simplification strategy used by Brazilian learners to produce English word-final consonants. The present study also tested whether voicing, the environment following the target consonant and orthography influenced the epenthesis rates. As regards voicing, the variability present in the data makes it difficult to draw any conclusions. In relation to the environment following the word-final consonant, it was found that, contrary to Baptista and Silva Filho's (1997) and Edge's (1991) findings, the context _#V triggered more epenthesis than _# or _#C. Finally, orthography appeared to be a relevant factor in determining the rates of vowel epenthesis, with words ending with a consonantal grapheme followed by a silent "e" triggering higher epenthesis rates than those ending in a consonantal grapheme only. Moreover, spelling also caused subjects to transfer L1 processes such as the deletion of nasals, with the preceding vowel assimilating the nasal feature, and the substitution of alveo-palatal affricates for alveolar stops.

As already mentioned, the environment following the word-final consonant also influenced the epenthesis rates, with the context _#V triggering the highest rates, a finding in conflict with those of Baptista and Silva Filho (1997). Also, the acquisition of word-final consonants is subject to the effects of orthography, which can favor the interference of L1 phonological processes. This last result indicates the relevance of teaching spelling rules for L2 learners.

Finally, this study found that, although pronunciation instruction occupied part of the experimental group class time, it did not interfere with the learning of the rest of the syllabus content. This result was found by comparing the grades of the experimental and the control group subjects in the written exam. Probably, the integration of the pronunciation instruction with the course syllabus prevented the experimental group from lagging behind in their knowledge of grammar, listening comprehension skills and vocabulary, compared to the control group. However, as the subjects did not receive a standardized test to measure their previous knowledge of these skills, it is possible that the experimental and the control groups had different proficiency levels before the study began.

CONCLUSION

As the data investigated by the present study were limited, the results presented here should be treated with a great deal of caution. Nevertheless, there seems to be evidence that pronunciation can facilitate the acquisition of word-final consonants, since the experimental group subjects succeeded at reducing the epenthesis rates per consonant significantly in their posttests. All subjects in the experimental group reduced their epenthesis rates considerably after receiving instruction, and some subjects from the control group presented reduced epenthesis rates to some extent in the posttest. This suggests that there might be other factors influencing the acquisition of word-final consonants (e.g., simple exposure to the language, language aptitude), since pronunciation instruction cannot account for this improvement.

In the present study, the experimental and the control groups were taught by different instructors. This might have interfered with the results concerning the effectiveness of the pronunciation instruction used with the experimental group. Future research should control for this variable by having the same instructor working with both groups.

As regards previous interphonology studies on the acquisition of word-final consonants, this study does not clearly corroborate Baptista and Silva Filho (1997) on any counts except for epenthesis being the principal strategy of the participants to deal with final consonants, and clearly contradicts the earlier study regarding environment. Differences in research design might have contributed to the different results. Further research should be carried out in order to clarify the results obtained by the two studies.

The pronunciation manual used with the experimental group was meant to be used to teach pronunciation based on Celce-Murcia et al.'s (1996) framework. While using the material with the experimental group, it was possible to detect some of its limitations. The major difficulties were to design and implement some of the more communicative tasks and to integrate the pronunciation content with that presented by the textbook used by both groups in terms of grammar and vocabulary. Despite the problems identified, it seems to be a valuable resource to help Brazilians who are learning English at the beginning level to acquire word-final consonants. Further research is necessary to corroborate or question this finding.

Despite its limitations, this study represents an important contribution to the area of pronunciation teaching, for it brings together theory, research and practice in the development and testing of pronunciation materials. Although the integration between theory, research and classroom practice has been absent in the area of pronunciation instruction, it is fundamental for the development of this area (Morley, 1991; Baptista, 2000, Silveira, 2001). More studies are necessary to test for the benefits of this integration, and to devise new ways of accomplishing it.

A further limitation of the present study is that it dealt exclusively with beginning learners. This made it difficult to design a task to collect more naturalistic speech samples, owing to the subjects' difficulty in performing this type of task at the time the pretest was given. Thus, the present study cannot make any claims regarding the effects of pronunciation instruction in more naturalistic speech contexts, since the subjects were tested only in a sentence-reading task. Future research should address the effectiveness of pronunciation instruction with more proficient learners in order to collect and compare speech samples that range from more to less formal. Studies with more proficient learners could also investigate whether these learners are more resilient to change than beginners.

NOTES

[i] From now on, the term L2 will be used as referring to both second and foreign language, unless it is necessary to make a distinction between them.

[ii] See Collischonn (1996) and Monaretto, Quednau and Hora (1996)

[iii] The palatalization of /t/ and /d/ when they are followed by the vowel /i/ is a phonological process commonly found in many dialects of BP: dia "day" ['dZia], tia "aunt" ['tSia] (Cristófaro, 1999).

[iv] Nearly 50% of the students of both the experimental and control groups were eliminated from the study because they were absent on either the pre or posttest days. This was due mainly to the time both tests were given. The pretest was given in the second class after the course began, and after this date, several students joined the experimental group. By then, the treatment with the pronunciation instruction material had begun, so it was not possible to ask those students to do the pretest. The posttest was given in the first week of June, when most students were taking exams in their curricular courses, which caused the rate of absence in the extracurricular courses to be high.

[v] /S/: experimental group = 7.4% for the pre and posttests; control group = 0% for the pretest and 7.7% for the posttest; /tS/: experimental group = 14.8% for the pretest and 0% for the posttest; control group = 2.6% for the pretest and 5.1 for the posttest.

[vi] A word-final /p/ in the context V__# was inadvertently omitted from both the pre and posttest.

[vii] The statistical packages used were: Microsoft Excel 2000 and the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS/SPADWIN).

[viii] Due to the duration of the experiment, it was not possible to check the subjects' performance on the second written test.

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APPENDIX A

Pronunciation Manual
Designed to accompany the book New Interchange I
Extracurricular Courses – UFSC
Rosane Silveira/2001

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Tasks, vocabulary field, and related units from New Interchange I

1. The phonetic alphabet

2. The syllable (1): the weather
3. The syllable (2): "-e" and "-y"; general vocabulary
4. /Z/ and /δZ/: places and nationalities; months (unit 2)
5. /μ/, /v/, and /N/: numbers (unit 3); general questions (units 1 and 2); present tense (units1 and 2)
6. /ϖ/ and /ϕ/: irregular plurals (unit 3); jobs (unit 2); adjectives
7. /β/, /δ/, and /γ/: general vocabulary, adjectives
8. /π/, /τ/, and /κ/: colors (unit 3), numbers (unit 3)

SAMPLE LESSON

UNIT 5. THE CONSONANTS /μ/ /v/ /N/

Ouça as palavras em (1) e preste atenção na pronúncia da letra "m".
Listen to the words in (1) and pay attention to the pronunciation of the letter "m".

(1) team am same time gym
simple

⇒ O som da letra "m" é representado pelo símbolo /m/. Pratique a pronúncia das palavras em (1). The sound of the letter "m" is represented by the symbol /m/. Practice the pronunciation of the words in (1).

Ouças as palavras em (2) e preste atenção na pronúncia da letra "n":
Listen to the words in (2) and pay attention to the pronunciation of the letter "n".

(2) ten man send sentiment

O som da letra "n" é representado pelo símbolo /n/. Pratique a pronúncia das palavras em (2). The sound of the letter "n" is represented by the symbol /n/. Practice the pronunciation of the words in (2).

bAs letras "m" e "n" são pronunciadas da mesma forma no início e no final das sílabas. Compare as palavras em (3) e (4)

The letters "m" and "n" are pronounced the same way in the beginning and the end of syllables.

(3)
March am morning film
my gym simple more

(4)
no ten never sin
nice pencil not man

A letra "n" pode ser pronunciada de uma outra forma. Ouça as palavras em (5):
The letter "n" can be pronounced in a different way. Listen to the words in (5):

(5) sing strong song think pink

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O som da letra "n", quando seguida de "g" ou "k" é representado pelo símbolo /N/. Pratique a pronúncia das palavras em (5).
The sound of the letter "n", when followed by "g" or "k" is represented by the symbol /N/. Practice the pronunciation of the words in (5).

bLembre-se: A letra "e" geralmente não é pronunciada em final de palavras. Mas as letras "m" e "n" **têm** de ser pronunciadas no final das sílabas, estejam elas seguidas de "e" ou não. Ouça as palavras em (6) e pratique-as.
Remember: The letter "e" is not generally pronounced in word-final position. But the letters "m" and "n" **must** be pronounced in word-final position, whether they are followed by an "e" or nor. Listen to the words in (6) and practice them.

(6)

/m/		/n/		/N/
team	time	win	wine	sing
Sam	same	pin	pine	thing
cream	crime	mean	mine	thank

a) Ouça as palavras abaixo e circule a palavra de cada par que você ouvir. Depois pratique-as com um colega. Seu colega vai circular a palavra que ouvir.
Listen to the words below and circle the one you hear for each pair. Then practice them with a partner. Your partner will circle the word he or she hears.

A		*B*		*C*	
say	same	bee	bean	sin	sing
see	seem	lie	line	win	wing
cry	crime	me	mean	thin	thing
tea	team	play	plane	ham	hang
tie	time	say	sane	swim	swing

b) Leia os textos na página 19 (*New Interchange* I-A) e sublinhe todas as palavras que contêm os sons /m/, /n/ e /N/ em posição final.
Read the texts on page 19 (*New Interchange* I-A) and underline all the words containing the sounds /m/, /n/ and /N/ in word-final position.
c) Leia novamente os textos na página 19 e preste atenção na pronúncia dos sons /m/, /n/ e /N/. Escolha um dos textos e grave-o.
Read the texts on page 19 again and pay attention to the pronunciation of the sounds /m/, /n/ and /N/.

d) Com um colega, pratique a pronúncia de algumas das palavras retiradas dos textos da página 19.
With a partner, practice the pronunciation of some of the words taken from the texts on page 19.

in	television	some	than	item	American
often	began	home	phone	on	soon
anything	shopping	clothing	things	can	interesting

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e) Pair Work: Você costuma fazer compras? Olhe as gravuras que a professora vai entregar e adivinhe o preço aproximado de cada item. Depois, confira os precos exatos no cartao que a professora vai entregar.

Pair Work: Do you usually go shopping? Look at the pictures the teacher is going to give you and guess the approximate price for each item. Then, check the exact prices in the card the teacher will give you.

Exemplo: A: How much is the ...?
B: It's about .... dollars.

ITEM	APPROXIMATE PRICE (IN US$)
the pair of golden earrings	
the television set	....
the film roll	....
the ice-cream cone	....
the phone card	....
the can of beer	....
the video game	....
the walkman	....
the disc-man	....
the diamond ring	....
the bottle of red wine	....
the vacuum cleaner	....
the swim suit	....
the pair of in-line skates	....
the king-size bed	....
the ping-pong rackets	....

f) Pense em 5 perguntas usando as palavras abaixo e discuta com um colega para ver se as perguntas estão corretas. Em seguida, entrevistem-se usando as perguntas que vocês elaboraram.
Think of 5 questions using the words below and work with a partner to check whether the questions are correct. Then, you and your partner should interview each other using the questions you made.

- Name
- Phone number
- Where from
- Occupation
- Activities on the weekend

g) Miming: Siga as instruções da professora.
Follow the teacher's instructions.

PERCEPTIONS, INTERACTIONS AND IMMERSION: A CROSS-COMPARATIVE CASE STUDY OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN STUDENTS' EXPERIENCES IN A FRENCH IMMERSION CONTEXT AND A REGULAR EDUCATION CONTEXT

MICHELLE HAJ-BROUSSARD, Louisiana State University

This paper was presented at the 2002 TEXFLEC conference

Louisiana State UniversityStudies in the French immersion context have found that African-American students reap additional academic benefits in that context (Holobow, Genesee & Lambert, 1987; Caldas & Boudreaux, 1999), but few studies have been done to explain why immersion would be more beneficial to these students. Ogbu (1999) shows the connection between African-American parent and student dialect beliefs, attitudes and school behavior in regular education. While other research indicates that students' self-concept improves in a second language-learning environment (Masciantonio, 1977; Wright & Taylor, 1995). This study examines African-American students' experiences in a partial French immersion setting and in a regular education setting focusing on the perceptions and interactions of African-American students, their teachers and their peers and includes parental support.

Using field observations, interviews and questionnaires, this cross-comparative case study found that while overall students' self-concept was better in regular education, African-American girls benefited immensely in term of self-concept, their peers' perception of them and the extended interactions they had with the teacher. Further, African-American students in the regular education classroom while having a high self-concept were perceived negatively or not at all by their peers, often had negative interactions with the teacher and were not included in extended interactions with the teacher.

INTRODUCTION

Studies in the French immersion context have found that African-American students reap additional academic benefits in that context (Holobow, Genesee & Lambert, 1987; Caldas & Boudreaux, 1999), but few studies have been done to explain why immersion would be more beneficial to these students. Masciantonio (1977) found that students' self-concept improves in a second language-learning environment. Wright & Taylor (1995) discovered that a child's self-esteem and collective self-esteem improves more when studying a heritage language, than a second-language and much more than when studying an assimilating language. Aguirre (1999) likewise found that students are more motivated to study a language that they do not perceive as threatening their own language and culture. Ogbu (1999) illustrates how Standard English or school English is seen as assimilationist in one African-American community and the connection between African-American dialect beliefs, attitudes and school behavior in regular education.

French immersion is considered a heritage language program in Louisiana and it allows students to succeed academically without passing through the filter of Standard English, which African-American parents and students in Ogbu's study considered "talking white." This study focuses on the question *How do the experiences of students in a partial French immersion classroom differ from the experiences of students in a regular education classroom?*

In addition to the comparison of the two classroom contexts, there is also an interest and examination of how African-American students are perceived, how they interact, and parental support within each class. In order to answer the research question, this study examines African-American students' school experiences focusing on 1) students' perceptions of themselves and others; 2) student interactions with their teacher and their peers; 3) parental support of students' educational experiences and 4) teacher interactions with the students.

Participants

The participants in this study were drawn from two intact second grade classrooms in an integrated public school in southwestern Louisiana. The school is a Title I school with nearly 70% of its students on free or reduced lunch and with over half the student population comprised of minority students. This school was selected because it is one of the few immersion schools in Louisiana with a balanced ratio of African-American and white students. The parish (district) in which the school is situated is considered the heart of Cajun and Creole country because a large percentage of residents are of francophone heritage.

Two classes were selected for the study, one French immersion class, in which subject content is taught in French, and one regular education class, in which all subjects are taught in English. The classes were selected by matching the immersion and regular education teachers' scores on the Primary Teacher Questionnaire (Smith, 1993). The Primary Teacher Questionnaire (Smith, 1993) is a self-reported teacher belief scale that contains items from both a developmentally appropriate subscale and a traditionally based subscale. The Primary Teacher Questionnaire's (PTQ) subscale were internally consistent with high reliability estimates (DAP=.802; TRAD = .867). In addition factorial analysis of the two factors demonstrated item clusters that were "highly consistent with the logical structures of the guidelines on which the PTQ was based." (Smith, 1993 p. 23).

The two teachers selected did not match perfectly on the PTQ but they were the closest possible match. The French immersion teacher, Mme. Voisin, was found to have a more developmental approach to teaching while the regular education teacher, Mrs. Thibodeaux, had a more traditional approach. Direct observation corroborated the PTQ. Mme. Voisin's class consisted of mostly learning centers, circle time and hands-on activities while Mrs. Thibodeaux had a more teacher-centered, paper and pencil and independent activities.

Within each classroom four students, two African-American students, a girl and a boy, and two white students, a girl and a boy, were selected to be interviewed based on matched reading-levels and academic grades.

METHODOLOGY

This case study consisted of five-weeks of direct observations recorded in fieldnotes in each class two to three times each week for 30 to 60 minutes a session. During the five weeks of field observations students were interviewed for about 20 minutes each using a researcher-revised version of Wright & Taylor's (1995) Self and Collective Esteem Scale. The Wright and Taylor scale revealed the students perceptions of themselves and their classmates within the two contexts. The participants chose certain classmates and sometimes themselves as having some positive traits (happy, nice, smart, many friends, good at many things and like school) and some negative traits (other students don't like, not good at school). Teachers were also interviewed, once formally for about 10 minutes and then at various times informally. Because the formal interviews were done during the teachers' lunch break it was not feasible to tape record the interviews because the background noise of the cafeteria would have been too loud but notes were taken during the interviews. Additionally, a researcher created parent survey was sent home

Once the field observations were completed the researcher distributed a self-concept inventory to all of the participating students (Wiseman & Adams, 1972). In addition to measuring the participants' self-concept the picture inventory also measures the students' attitude toward school and peers. The "Self-concept Picture Inventory" (Wiseman, D & Adams, J, 1972) consists of 48 sub-titled pictures of stick figures involved in a school activity. The participant is given four pictures and asked to choose the one which best reflects him or herself.

Data collected for the study was compiled into a database and emerging themes were drawn from the database using the constant comparative method of data analyses (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Individual case study reports were given to the participant teachers as a member check and then a cross comparative case study report was created.

FINDINGS

While the overarching research question for this study was: *How do the experiences of students in a partial French immersion classroom differ from the experiences of students in a regular education classroom?* the data collection and analyses focused on the 1) students' perceptions of themselves and others; 2) student interactions with their teacher and their peers; 3) parental support of students' educational experiences and 4) teachers' individualized interactions with students. The findings will be reported according to these subcategories. In addition to these subcategories, the question, *Is this differential effect enhanced if the students are African-Americans?*, will be discussed as well in each category

Do the four French immersion students perceive themselves more positively than the four regular education students perceive themselves? Is this differential effect enhanced if the students are African-Americans?

According to the "Self-concept Picture Inventory" (Wiseman,D. & Adams, J, 1972), and in terms of the entire classes, French immersion students do not perceive themselves more positively than regular education students. The "Self-concept Picture Inventory" had a score ranging from 12 to 48 with the lower score signifying a more positive self-concept. The students' scores can be examined in the Appendix. Overall, the average score on the inventory were comparable for both contexts, with the French immersion students averaging a score of 18.53 (sd 5.63) while the regular education students averaged a score of 18.31 (sd 6.84). When broken down by gender and ethnicity the self-concept scores were more positive (lower) for students in the regular education in three of the four grouping. However, there were outlier French immersion students that raised the average in these three grouping. Similarly, in the one grouping wherein French immersion students' average indicated a more positive self-concept, there was an outlier regular education African-American boy who raised the average. In other words, differences across programs appeared to be due to particular students whose extreme scores affected the averages.

In terms of the participants' self-concept scores it is important to note that the white French immersion participants both had outlier scores for their groups. Kristi, had a score of 23, which indicates a negative self-concept and Trey had an even lower score of 32, which indicates an even more negative self-concept. The African-American participants in French immersion had much more positive scores than their white counterparts. The African-American boy, Jeremy, had the most positive of all scores a 12, while the African-American girl, Maya, had a score of 16 (another positive score). Of the four participants in the regular education class the highest score was a 21 for Kevin the white boy. This score still indicates a positive self-concept according to the inventory. As for the other regular education participants they all had positive self-concept scores: Valery, the white girl, had a score of 16; Helen, the African-American girl, had a score of 17; and Casey, the African-American boy, had a score of 17. Please see Appendix A.

However, after having given the inventory, I realized that it was more a test of correct behavior and socialization rather than self-concept. According to Campbell-Whatley and Corner, "self-concept includes, self-image, self-esteem and attitudes toward self (Crocker, Luhtanen, Blaine & Broadnax, 1994; Hartner, 1993; Obiakor, Algozzine & Campbell-Whatley, 1997; Verkuyten, 1995). It is shaped and molded by a person's unique experience in an interactive system that includes the family and its primary social network of friends and kin and meaningful organizations...(p.19)." Given this definition with its emphasis on the importance of the students' social networks of friends, it is difficult to understand why Wiseman and Adams would give a more positive self-concept score to a child reading a book all alone rather than two friends with their arms around each others shoulders. Likewise, they give a more positive score to the child who plays so much on the playground that he ignores the other students while the child who is playing ball with the other students gets a lower score in self-concept. With regard to the boy's scores there were a few items that also tripped them up for example jump roping with friends elicited the response, "That's for girls!" from one of the students. While the children playing ball together received a lower score on self-concept than the jump ropers. Likewise simply holding hands with a friend rather than playing ball on the playground conferred a higher self-concept score.

Given these weaknesses in the Wiseman and Adams inventory, I decided to use a second measure which was based on Wright and Taylor's (1995) test of personal and collective self-esteem. However, this measure was not without its problems. Wright and Taylor (1995) base their measure on Clark and Clark 's (1939 cited in Wright & Taylor, 1995) doll studies in which participants chose which doll, the black or the white one, had which attribute. Wright and Taylor used photographs. Hatcher and Troyna (1993) critique this methodological and interpretive paradigm in which children "are made to notice the outer difference and to accept them as signs of an inner differences of value (Laker, 1929 cited in Hatcher & Troyna, 1993,p. 110)." They state that in using such methods " researchers collude wittingly or otherwise in legitimizing "race" as a valid criterion for differentiating the population (p. 111)." To avoid "legitimizing 'race' as a valid criterion", the participants classified their classmates, not photographs or dolls, according to the same characteristics as in the Wright and Taylor study (Happy, smart, lots of friends, everybody likes, etc). Additionally, instead of asking students about "race" the children were asked to establish another classification for themselves and a group of their friends. This section will look at how the students classified themselves.

When the French immersion participants were asked if they would put themselves in the happy group the French immersion boys, white and African-American, both put themselves in the happy group. The French immersion girls, white and African-American, both said "sometimes". The white girl in French immersion also added that a lot of the students are "mean to me". This seemed to indicate that perhaps she wasn't as happy as the other participants. Gender, as will be shown, seemed to play a much larger role than race in the French immersion classroom. The regular education participants all said they would go in the happy group. When asked if they would go in the nice group, all eight of the participants said "yes".

When the participants were asked if they would put themselves in the "smart" group all but one of the French immersion participants said they would go in this group. The one participant, Jeremy, the African-American boy said "no" he would not go in this group. It must be remembered that Jeremy is a "B" student who at the beginning of second grade is able to read at the 2.3 (grade 2 month 3) level. In the regular education class all but one participant said they would go in the smart group. The one participant, as in the French immersion class, was the African-American boy, Casey. Casey also is a "B" student who at the beginning of second grade is able to read at the 2.2 level. Both African-American boys, followed similar patterns in their peer classifications, which will be discussed in the next section.

When participants were asked if they were "good at many things", the African-American French immersion participants both said "yes" while the white French immersion participants said "no". All of the regular education participants said that they were good at many things.

Both groups of participants, French immersion and regular education, also said that they had many friends. However, when the students were asked if they would go in the group with children "who the other children don't like", both boys in the French immersion participants group said that they would go in the group while both of the African-American participants in the regular education class said that they were students "who the other children don't like." This again follows a pattern that was also seen in the peer classification.

When students were asked who did not do well in school, the white French immersion participants were the only students to classify themselves as not doing well in school. This was after both of these students had put themselves in the "smart" group. For Kristi, the white French immersion girl, this finding was not surprising since she has the lowest reading level of the class, 1.6, and during class observations she was often helped by students around her. In terms of Trey, it is shocking! Trey read at the 3.3 grade level; this is well above the expected grade level. In addition, Trey made straight "A's" in first grade. However, the peers that Trey chose for this group may have contributed to him not choosing himself for this attribute.

Overall the regular education students in both the Wiseman and Adams inventory and the subsequent adapted Wright and Taylor self-esteem test appeared to have more positive outlooks regardless of ethnicity or gender. In the French immersion group the African-American girls appeared to have both better self-concept scores and better self-esteem. In retrospect, given that both of the white French immersion participants had much more negative self-concept scores, it would have been better to have selected other students. However, based on the criteria available to choose the students, I still feel that the matches made were the closest matches possible.

Do the four French immersion students perceive their peers differently than the four regular education students perceive their peers? Is this differential effect enhanced if the students are African-Americans?

The Wright and Taylor (1995) inspired self-esteem test furthermore allowed the participants to classify their peers, their classmates according to these same categories, of happy, nice, smart, good at many things, and not doing well at school. When looking at the participants' choices in terms of gender and the ethnicity, some definite patterns emerged. Additionally, the new category which the participants were allowed to construct and into which they classified classmates gave further insight into the participants' perception of their peers.

When asked which of their classmates were happy the French immersion participants tended to name girls in the class, especially African-American girls. Not including the participants classification of themselves, they made 9 choices altogether of students who they saw as being happy. Of these 9 choices 6 were girls and 4 of those girls were African-American. The only discernible pattern as to who made what choice was that Kristi, the white girl, chose only white students as being happy. This pattern of white choosing white students or not choosing African-American students was even more apparent in the regular education class. While Kristi only named two students, both of whom were white, Kevin, the white regular education boy, named 5 students none of whom were African-American, but two of whom were Asian-American. Likewise, Valery, who named 4 students, had no African-American students in her happy category. The both African-American the boy's and the African-American girl's participants list of happy students were much more diverse each list having boys, girls, African-Americans, Asian-Americans and white students.

When the students classified which of their classmates they considered nice the French immersion students split nearly perfectly along gender lines. The girls had 10 of their 11 choices as other girls, while the boys had 5 of their 6 choices as other boys. The only participant who did not have diversity in their choices in terms of ethnicity was Jeremy who did not choose an African-American student as nice. However, since he seemed limited by gender in his choice and since there were only two African- American boys, of which he was one, this does not seem to extraordinary finding. The regular education class had very diverse groups, except for two exceptions. Kevin, the white boy, did not choose either of the two African-American girls as nice. This was not due to a gender bias. Kevin did have an Asian-American girl and three white girls in his nice group. Valery, the white girl, did show some gender bias. She had a very diverse list of girls only.

When classifying who they thought were the "smart students" the French Immersion participants, boys and girls alike, chose girls. Out of 14 choices 13 of these choices were girls. This was due in part to the fact that the two strongest students in the class, Nathalie and Kelly, were chosen by every French Immersion participant. So out of the 14 choices 8 of them were for Nathalie, an African-American girl and Kelly, a white girl. However, even out of the remaining 6 choices 5 were still girls. Of these five female choices, 4 were African-American and one was white. Again we see the positive leanings in the French immersion class toward the girls, especially the African-American girls.

The regular education participants did not have such pronounced patterns. Helen, the African-American girl, again chose a very diverse group including all genders and ethnicities as "smart". The boys showed gender bias and chose only other boys as being "smart". Casey, the African-American boy, chose Eric, the Asian American boy and no one else, while Kevin chose Eric and Blane, an African-American boy. Valery, like Helen, had a very diverse choice of students, but she had more girls than boys and, as in the previous categories, she does not include any African-American boys.

On the same vein, the students classified their peers according to whom was "good at many things". In the French immersion class, as in the "smart" category, Nathalie and Kelly were nearly the only choices, seven out of the eight choices were for them. Jeremy was the only French immersion participant who did not pick Nathalie. He chose John, the Creole (African-American) boy instead. Thanks to Nathalie and Kelly the choices were once again overwhelmingly female.

In the regular education class, Helen again showed amazing diversity in her choices for "good at many things" with both genders and all ethnicities represented. The only pattern apparent for the two boys was that neither Casey nor Kevin chose either of the African-American girls. Valery finally did choose an African-American boy as having a positive attribute, but she did so using a caveat. She chose Alex saying that he was "starting to do good things". There seemed to be a more negative conception of the African-Americans in this class especially with regards to the two African-American girls.

The final positive attribute categories under which the participants classified their peers was "those who have many friends", in other words the popular students. It is here where one enters into the social politics of the classroom. As I was interviewing the French immersion participants I initially believed that no pattern was emerging and then I interviewed Kristi. Kristi named a white boy, a white girl, herself and then she said "nobody" hesitated an instance and corrected herself. "Oh and Maya and Tonya cuz they got a group of girls". When I reexamined the names given by the French immersion student I found that the only student who hadn't mentioned Tonya, a loquacious African-American girl, as being popular was another member of her group Maya. In field observations I had noticed that Tonya, Maya, Gisele and Theresa were often talking, helping each other or making face/gestures at each other. This group that both Maya and Tonya were part of might have contributed to the positive leaning that the class had in terms of African-American girls.

In stark contrast to the immersion classroom, none of the participants in the regular education classroom listed either of the two African-American girls as a child who has many friends. Helen, the African-American girl named seven people, nearly all of them were white: five white students, three girls and two boys; the white teacher and the one exception, an African-American boy named Jesse. Casey, the African-American boy also perceived white students as the popular students. Out of the five students that he listed three of the students were white, one of the students, Eric, was listed as Asian on his cumulative folders but both the researcher and the teacher first believed he was white. The other child was Blaine, an African-American boy. Kevin had a diverse group of mostly girls, four white girls and Liz the Asian-American girl, and only two boys, Blaine and Eric. Valery had the most balanced diversity, except for the absence of African-American girls. She included the two Asian-Americans, Eric and Linda; two African-American boys, Alex and Jesse; one white boy, Kevin and two white girls, the twins Bianca and Brenda.

Once the participants had responded to all those positive attributes they were asked two questions about peers who had some negative attributes. The first question was, " who in the class was not well liked? In the French immersion class both boys named just themselves and Kelly, the very high-achieving white girl. Maya named Jeremy "because of his finger." Kristi had quite a long list naming Ethan, a white boy, Tonya, an African-American girl who in the previous question she had listed as having many friends, Tracy, an African-American girl, and Kelly. No clear pattern was discernible in these responses except that Kelly was not well liked and that both boys, as previously mentioned considered themselves as not well liked while the girls did not.

The regular education class did have a pattern of perceiving boys and minorities as not well liked. Helen named Eric, Alex, Jesse and Kent as not being well liked. Eric, Alex and Jesse are all minority students and Kent is a low achieving white student who is of very small stature and wears thick glasses. Helen said that Alex, Jesse and Kent all tease her. Casey also talked more of who teased him. He listed three boys that he did not like, Kevin, Jesse and Alex. Kevin said that none of the students were not liked, while Valery listed Liz, the Asian-American student and Iris the other African-American student besides Helen.

The other negative attribute was the classification of students who were "not good at schoolwork." In the French immersion classroom these students were overwhelmingly male. Jeremy listed Marcia, a white girl who had just been taken out of the program and Tom an average achieving white boy. Beside himself, Trey listed Jason, Tom, Quincy, Ethan (all average achieving white boys) and John (an average to high achieving creole/ African-American boy). Maya named Trey as a classmate who was not good at schoolwork, because "he always have to go meet the teacher." Kristi first named herself and then John. She also said "maybe Theresa". Theresa was the only African-American girl named and even she was a maybe. Kristi was the only white girl in the class mentioned and she mentioned herself. Compare this overwhelmingly male, negative attribute to the overwhelmingly female, positive attribute of "smart."

In the regular education class the boys' choices were along gender and ethnicity lines. Casey chose two other African-American boys, Alex and Jessie, while Kevin listed two white boys, Charles and Kent. Additionally, Kevin listed one white girl, Katie. The data on the regular education girls is incomplete.

After the more directed questions participants were given the freedom to create their own group and decide who would go in the group. The French immersion participants groups were Jeremy's "Plays hide and seek everyday" group; Trey's "Boy's group"; Maya's "Friends" group; and Kristi's "Aggravating" group. All of the students except Kristi included themselves in their group. Jeremy had a very diverse group that included both genders and ethnicities and even included his younger sister. Trey's group, true to its title, included all boys and except for the very light-skinned John, it included only white boys. Maya's group included both white and African-American, but it was an all girl group. Kristi's group included every group except the white girls, who apparently do not aggravate her. For the white students, both gender and ethnicity appear to be important to the inclusion/ exclusion of group members. While, Maya, the African-American girl, is concerned only with gender. Jeremy's criteria for group inclusion was based on a behavior namely participation in a game rather than on a personal attribute.

The regular education self-made groups cut strictly down gender lines. The groups were, "we play together on the monkey bars," "Games, t.v. and food," "last year 1st grade," and "smart group." Helen's group like Jeremy's was based on a behavior, "we play together on the monkey bars." Her group contained eight people, besides herself, only two of whom are boys and three of whom are not in her class. Both Helen and Valery listed mostly girls in their self-made groups. Valery's "smart group" contained five diverse girls, Bianca, Liz, Lacey, Iris, Helen and only two boys Eric and Kevin. Valery's group was also majority white, but it did have diversity with both of the African-American girls and both Asian-American students. Once again, though, Valery excluded African-American boys. Casey's group, "Games, t.v. and food," had mostly boys, four boys of diverse ethnicity and one white girl, Bianca. Kevin's group included both boys and girls, but since it was from his previous year in school, their ethnicities were not available. Kevin did mention Casey in his "last year 1st grade" group.

On a final note the students made some comments on how they would want to change in their class. The patterns that emerged here were across class patterns rather than patterns within each class. The most serious wishes came from both the African-American girls. Both girls wanted peace in their classroom. Maya in the French immersion class said, "I wish we could all be friends. Kristi and Tammy don't get along with Ethan. Kristi's mom said she can't get by Ethan because he chased her and he teased her and he's a bad boy." Likewise, the theme of bad boys was reflected in Helen's wish. When asked what she would change in her class she responded, "Some of them are mean, Alex and Jessi; that's the two bad boys." I then asked her what she would do. " Tell. I'd rather them go in another class or Ms. B's (vice-principal) office." Furthermore, Jeremy had a wish that dealt with peace in the classroom he declared, "Don't let 'em hit me." When I asked who, he said the girls, but then he went on to say that the girls don't hit hard, but the boys do. Then he continued, "Boys' don't hit girls, they hit boys unless they have to." In each of these aspirations for peace in the classroom the disruptions are along gender lines. The other students' wishes were a bit off the wall. Casey wanted ten hours of homework each night. Kevin wanted to change the school into a big Astroworld and have the cafeteria serve pizza everyday. Trey wanted to switch from French to Chinese immersion. Both of the white girls wishes had to do with changing the actual physical classroom. Kristi wanted to have the class outside, while Valery wanted more holiday decorations and designs that could hang from the roof.

The final student interview question that offered surprising insight into the students' perception of their peers, a least in the regular education class was the question concerning the teacher's treatment of students. Neither of the African-American students perceived their teacher as treating other students differently, but both of the regular education white students did notice a difference in treatment. When asked, "Does your teacher treat everyone the same way?" Kevin responded, "No, sometimes she screams at people like Jesse and Charles and Alex." As a follow-up question as to why he answered, "Because they bad." Valery answered the same question, "Jesse is the only different. He's bad. She treats the good one's kinda normal." The French Immersion students did not perceive any of their peers as being treated differently by the teacher.

In summary, the French immersion students consider female peers as possessing positive attributes while male peers possess the negative ones. The importance of gender is evident in the happy and nice question. In addition, the importance of the African-American girls in influencing the class is apparent in peer perception. Gender bias was evident in all the students. Overall, in both classes, white students were more likely to exclud other ethnicity. Mrs. Thibodeaux, the regular education teacher, unwittingly propagated the white students' negative perceptions of the African-American students. Regular education white students noticed that some of the African-American boys were treated differently than the others. When asked why they said that these students were bad. The regular education white girl, Valery, had a very pronounced exclusion of African-American male students. Contrarily, the regular education African-American students, especially Helen, demonstrated diversity of choice. Besides diversity of choice, three of the four African-American students, when asked what they would change about the class, spoke of a peaceful class with no arguments or hitting.

Do the French immersion students initiate a greater number of interactions with their teachers and peers than the regular education students?

The answer to this question was an unabashed yes. The reason the French immersion students initiated so many more interactions with both their peers and the teacher had mainly to do with the management of the class. It is here that the differences that were seen in the initial selection of the teachers were made apparent. In the French immersion classroom, Mme Voisin, who has a more developmental approach to teaching, used cooperative learning centers for nearly every observation. In the regular education classroom, Mrs Thibodeaux, who has a more traditional approach to teaching, used a teacher-centered class structure.

In the teacher-centered, regular education class, the students had short messages that were usually addressed to the teacher. In the student-centered, French immersion class, the students had social messages, task-oriented messages and managerial messages that were more often directed at their peers. In French immersion, the social interaction followed strict gender lines. Since the students were in teacher-selected cooperative groups, the task-oriented and managerial messages were based on proximity, who was in the area of the learning center. Moreover, in the French immersion classroom where the students were responsible for completing the learning task, the length and complexity of their messages was greater.

The students' responsibility for achieving tasks also appeared to affect the amount of teacher remediation in the classroom. In both classrooms, the amount of teacher remediation was inversely related to amount of students helping students. In French immersion there were 18 instances where the teacher remediated the French immersion students, but there were 20 instances in which the students helped other students. In the regular education classroom, the teacher remediated her students 37 times while students helped other students only four times.

Is this differential effect enhanced if the students are African-Americans?

The only differential in terms of ethnicity and student-initiated interactions was found in the French immersion classroom. In French immersion, social interaction centered around girls especially the "girl group" of high-achieving African-American students. In addition, although the majority of student helping student instances were usually based on proximity in teacher assigned groups, the two exceptions to this apparent rule of proximity occurred with African-American students crossing the classroom to help other African-American students. These two exceptions followed gender lines.

How does the parental support of students' educational experiences in partial French immersion differ from the parental support of students' educational experiences in regular education?

There was not much difference seen in the parental support of the students' educational experiences. In French immersion 100% of the parents participate in conferences and ensured that the students had done their homework, but the regular education classroom was not far behind. While the teachers did not report a difference in volunteering overall the French immersion parents reported volunteering more. In addition, French immersion parents reported spending more time on homework. A couple of parents stated that homework was a hardship (over 2 hrs/night according to one parent).

Is this differential effect enhanced if the students are African-Americans?

In French immersion there was no apparent differences between the parental support offered by parents of white or African-American students. In regular education, some of the African-American parents qualified their responses when speaking of home/ school communication and they seemed to be referring to something, however, due to the time constraints of this study no interview was possible.

How does the teacher's individualized interaction with the students in partial French immersion differ from the teacher's individualized interaction with the students in regular *education?*

Mrs. Thibodeaux, the regular education teacher used a lot of positive feedback (34) and some negative feedback (18) when addressing the students. Mme Voisin rarely used positive or negative feedback (4 total). During the analysis of the study, the French immersion coordinator commented on this finding saying that many of the French immersion teachers are penalized during observations because they do not use much positive feedback, but the coordinator stated that this was because they felt that learning was intrinsically motivating (Boudreaux, 2001).

Although the French immersion teacher did not offer much feedback for her students, she did offer many more extensions (24 vs. 11) for her students. Extensions were defined as questions or statements that pushed students to find own answers or go further in thinking. In both classes, the extensions were often directed at the stronger students. In the regular education class, nine of the 11 extensions were directed toward the white female participant, Valery and the two Asian-American students, Eric and Liz, all very high achieving students. In French immersion, extensions were offered to more of the students but even so Tonya, a very high-achieving African-American girl and Trey, the very high achieving French immersion white male participant, received nine of the 24 extensions.

Apart from the feedback and the extensions there was another interaction that occurred in the regular education class that never occurred during observations of the French immersion classroom. That was the use of choruses. The regular education teacher often used these choruses to remind students of rules while they were doing whole group activities and or individual work. The choruses such as "e makes the ___say its own name" or "whole minus part equals part" were used to reinforce classroom learning. However, based on the amount of remediation that was needed after the regular education teacher and students would use the chorus, the choruses did not seem to have the effect they were intended to have.

Is this differential effect enhanced if the students are African-Americans?

There were quite a few differences in the teacher interactions with African-American students especially with regard to the regular education teacher. In the regular education classroom, one-half of the negative feedback was directed toward one African-American girl, Iris. Of the 9 remaining negative remarks 4 were directed at another African-American boy, Alex. Interestingly, while the class perceived the regular education teacher's differential treatment of Alex, they did not perceive that treatment with regards to Iris. This again underlines the theme of invisibility that was found in the participants' perception of their peers with regards to African-American girls in the regular education classroom.

While African-American students received more negative feedback, only one African-American student answered an extension question. Furthermore, Eric, a high achieving Asian boy and Valery, the high achieving white girl and the regular education white female participant, twice answered extension questions initially asked to African-American students. In the French immersion classroom the emerging theme of a beneficial environment for African-American girls was underlined with nine extension questions directed toward African-American girls. There were also ten extension questions answered by white boys.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FIELD

Based on the themes that emerged during this study, French immersion was shown to be a more social environment where students help each other and an environment in which girls, particularly African-American girls are perceived in a positive light. The very social environment of French immersion allowed the students to be more autonomous relying more on each other and less on the teacher. Regular education, on the other hand, had less social interaction and more student-teacher interaction. In addition, the white students in this teacher-centered environment appeared to be more exclusive than the white French immersion students and white regular education students based their perceptions of other students on the teacher's interaction with them. Two themes, that of the invisibility and the negative perceptions of African-American students, were found in the regular education classroom, but not apparent in the French immersion classroom. In both contexts, African-American students showed more diversity of choice in their peer classifications and a desire for a more harmonious, peaceful classroom environment.

An obvious limitation of this study, one that severely limits the generalizability of the findings, is the limited number of students and the specificity of the context, Louisiana French immersion. Other limitations of this study that will need to be remedied in future studies include the need to ensure that classes are observed at different times of the day, that students are more closely matched to each other, and the need to track the students' achievement in both contexts. The addition of an interview with the parents would allow for insight into the parents' perceptions of their child's educational experience.

Based on the findings from this study it appears that teachers in both contexts should work toward creating a more peaceful classroom, as classroom discord appeared to have a differential effect on the African-American students. Nevertheless, French immersion classroom appeared to be a positive environment for African-American students, especially African-American girls, yet, during the data collection phase of this study, one Louisiana French immersion program in a majority African-American school was closed and there are rumors of closing the second of the three African-American French immersion programs. If this program is indeed beneficial to African-American students, as previous research and this study appear to demonstrate, than the closing of these schools may not be in the best interests of the students.

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Appendix A Students' Self-concept Scores

	French immersion self-concept scores	Regular education self-concept scores
1	Kristi 23	21
2	25	Valery 16
3	16	15
4	Jeremy 12	42
5	15	16
6	Trey 32	16
7	Maya 16	15
8	15	13
9	26	Helen 17
10	21	15
11	23	16
12	14	Kevin 21
	12	13
	17	18
	13	22
	19	Casey 17
	16	
Sum	315	293
Mean score	18.5	18.3
Standard deviation	5.6	6.8

Appendix B Students' Mean scores according to Ethnicity and Gender

African-American girls mean score	17.66 (outlier 25)	14
African American boys mean score	19 (12 & 26 outliers)	24.5 (outlier 42)
Anglo girls mean score	17.74 (outlier 23)	17
Anglo boys mean score	20 (outlier 32)	18

Note: The lower the score the higher the self-concept.

TEACHERS STUDYING ABROAD: AN ANALYSIS OF CHANGES IN LINGUISTIC AND CULTURAL KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDES TOWARD THE SPANISH CULTURE AND THE EFFECTS OF ETHNOGRAPHIC INTERVIEWS

GREG THOMPSON, University of Arizona

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The purpose of this study is to determine linguistic, cultural, and attitudinal changes in public school teachers during time spent in a study abroad setting and the effect of conducting of ethnographic interviews on those changes. This study also looked at some of the problems that teachers experience while studying abroad and offers suggestions on how to improve the study abroad experience for teachers.

This study analyzes the effect of study abroad and ethnographic interviews on participants' linguistic, cultural, and attitudinal changes, participants were given a series of pre- and posttests to determine these changes.

The data revealed that participants made marked gains in speaking ability and listening comprehension of Spanish. Analysis of data showed that the majority of the participants made gains in the other language modalities as well. Statistically significant gains were made in cultural knowledge. The heterogeneity of the group in relation to experience with the language, teaching, age, and previous time spent abroad made it difficult to find significant results. In the post-study abroad survey, participants found that the ethnographic interviews were very beneficial in the acquisition of cultural knowledge, linguistic skills, and in improving attitudes toward the target culture.

INTRODUCTION

Many universities offer study abroad programs for their undergraduate students who are majoring in foreign languages or other curricular areas in which foreign study is considered relevant. Such study abroad programs are often the focus of research efforts to determine the benefits to their participants. In addition to these research studies, there is a growing body of research directed at participants in study abroad programs who are language teachers themselves (Rissel, 1995; McIntyre, 1975; Loew, 1980; Kalivoda, 1987). Many of these teachers are interested in taking advantage of the potential for professional development that such programs provide (Kalivoda, 1987).

There is evidence that teachers improve in many facets from their study abroad experience and are able to gain knowledge culturally, linguistically, and depending on the type of program, pedagogically (Rissel, 1995). The experience of teachers may also vary depending on a variety of factors such as their own previous language experience, their overall linguistic ability prior to the program, and their understanding of and experience with the foreign culture. Many schools support the educators and provide grants and other monies to help fund such programs, but the question continues to surface regarding ways to measure and to ensure that significant benefits accrue to participants and their sponsors.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH

The field of study abroad has grown dramatically in the past twenty years, and much research has gone into this field (Ferguson, 1995). Many studies have been done to measure the linguistic gains of teachers who spent time studying abroad. One such study was conducted with a group of twenty-five language teachers who spent five weeks in Mexico. At the end of the five weeks, they were tested to see what linguistic changes they had experienced during their time abroad. According to Rissel (1995), the teachers studied showed measurable gains in the four basic language modalities (listening, reading, writing, and speaking). All of the language teachers in the study increased their proficiency in these four areas, except for one whose scores decreased. Although this study was very detailed in its analysis of the linguistic gains, it did not attempt to measure some of the mitigating factors as to the why certain teachers progressed more than others. This study also failed to look at any attitudinal changes or cultural gains that teachers may have experienced.

One method with which culture can be examined is through the use of the ethnographic interview. Brecht (1995) pointed out, in a study involving the use of ethnographic interviews, the importance of using these interviews in the language learning process, but failed to present any statistics as to how this technique has functioned with those in a study abroad program. He has simply designated this area as one in which further research is needed.

In a poll conducted among secondary school teachers (Kalivoda, 1987), educators responded to a questionnaire in which they were asked to rate which aspects of foreign language learning they perceived as having the greatest value in their professional development in overseas instruction. Eighty-four percent of the teachers stated that oral proficiency was "of absolute importance" (p.182). Rated almost as high was knowledge of culture, referring to culture in the "anthropological sense" (p.182). The least valued skills for an overseas program among the teachers were those of literature and writing. Nevertheless, in a study of twenty different institutions offering study abroad programs designed for teachers, 34 percent of the courses were literature courses, and fewer than 16 percent of the courses had anything to do with the development of oral proficiency or the study of culture (p. 183).

Phillips (1991) states that the expectations regarding teachers' proficiency have increased with the advent of performance outcomes. She states, "Today's standards, along with the 'small world' phenomenon, mean that teachers often must prove to students, parents, and the community that their second language is strong enough to handle contemporary media, both aural and written, and to interact successfully with native speakers here and abroad" (p. 1).

Lange (1999) stated that culture is too often a "superficial aspect of language learning programs" (p. 58) and suggested that the ethnographic interview is a way in which culture may be effectively used with language instruction. Hill (1972) looked at teachers in Ontario, Canada, who went abroad and studied in Germany. This study abroad program focused on community contact rather than classroom activities. Upon looking at the value of such instruction, Hill found "There is a need in Ontario for foreign language teachers to freshen their facility in conversation and at the same time acquire information of a general and cultural nature for practical use in the classroom" (p. 125).

Allen (2000) claimed that one of the reasons teachers often cite for their discomfort with the integration of language and culture is their lack of experience abroad and their lack of "deep understanding" of the culture beyond that of specific facts. Allen evaluated the use of ethnographic interviews with a group of students in the United States, but did not consider how this would function in a study abroad context.

Another area of concern is that of what happens to teachers while they are abroad that may adversely or positively influence their attitude toward the target culture. Studies have shown that factors such as culture shock and homesickness negatively affect study abroad participants' attitudes (Wilkinson, 2000; Davies, 1989).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The aforementioned studies dealt with varying aspects of study abroad programs but failed to take into account the effect of the relationships between cultural knowledge, attitude toward the target culture, and linguistic ability. The purpose of this study is not to measure linguistic ability alone, nor only the cultural knowledge gains and increases in the attitude toward the target culture, but rather to analyze these three different facets together with a group of teachers. The focus of this research is to answer the following questions: (a) What effect does study abroad have on the participants' linguistic abilities, cultural knowledge, and attitude toward the target culture? (b) What factors influence teachers' attitudes during their time abroad? (c) What effect does the use of ethnographic interviews have on teachers' attitudes toward the target culture, linguistic abilities, and cultural knowledge?

PROCEDURES AND DESIGN OF STUDY

All tests selected for this thesis had been previously piloted by other researchers and institutions. The cultural questionnaire was piloted at Brigham Young University in Winter Semester 2000 and subsequently used in a separate research investigation concerning study abroad. The *Oral Testing Software* (OTS), *Placement Exam for Advanced Speakers of Spanish* (PEASS), *Computerized Language Instruction and Practice Software* (CLIPS) Test, and the *Spanish Computer Adaptive Placement Exam* (S-CAPE) were all extensively tested at Brigham Young University and are presently used in many universities and schools in the United States of America.

Participants

Participants in this study were eighteen certified elementary and secondary school teachers. They consisted of five male teachers and thirteen female participants. Of the eighteen participants, all had been born in the United States except two, one from Ecuador and the other from Guatemala. The amount of experience abroad in a Spanish-speaking country included five participants with no experience abroad, four who had spent from one to four weeks abroad, one who had spent from one to six months abroad, six who had spent more than two years abroad in a Spanish-speaking country, and two native-born speakers of Spanish. Four of the participants ranged in age from eighteen to twenty-eight, six between the ages of twenty-nine and thirty-eight, three between the ages of thirty-nine and forty-eight, and five between the ages of forty-nine and fifty-eight. Teaching experience consisted of four first-year teachers, six teachers with between two and five years of experience, three teachers with between six and ten years of experience, three teachers with between eleven and twenty years of experience, and two teachers with more than twenty years of experience. It is important to note that the participants constituted a very heterogeneous group due to different experience, both in the teaching field experience, experience abroad, and ability in the target language which caused some difficulty in showing statistically measurable differences in the pre- and posttests.

INSTRUMENTATION

Several instruments were used to measure participants linguistic ability, cultural knowledge, and attitude toward the target culture. A cultural questionnaire was used to measure the participants' cultural knowledge and attitudes. The cultural questionnaire consisted of seventy-three "True/False/I Don't Know" questions pertaining to cultural knowledge about the people and customs of Spain. The questionnaire also consisted of a Likert-type scale, a modified Bogardus social distance scale, and a semantic differential scale. The Likert-type scale measured participants' responses to a series of statements on a scale ranging from "1=strongly disagree" to "6=strongly agree." The Bogardus social distance scale consists of a relatively small set of homogenous items that are unidimensional. The items are arranged in an inherently progressive order. This scale is a social distance scale that measures with what proximity one would allow a person from a different culture to enter into different social and personal areas of one's life with the furthest being a visitor to one's own country and the closest being that of marriage to a person from the target country. A semantic differential scale requires respondents to chose between to polar opposite adjectives, such as "simple vs. complex" to measure their impressions of the target group.

The *Oral Testing Software* (OTS) was used to measure each participant's speaking ability. The OTS was first developed to test airline flight attendants' speaking abilities for a Flight Attendant Certification Program. It has subsequently been used in language training programs at various institutions. The participants were tested in a computer lab before leaving for and again upon returning from Spain. The OTS recorded the participants' responses to a series of interview situations that included aural and visual prompts. These responses were later analyzed according to the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) scale used by the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and by the Meredith Scale (Meredith, 1990, pp. 288-296). The Meredith Scale divides each level of the ACTFL scale into three parts and proceeds logarithmically from one to 6400. The Meredith Scale is designed to reflect the inverted pyramid often associated with the OPI where novice speakers can make gains in a short period of time, whereas more advanced speakers proceed from level to level at a slower rate. These tests were evaluated by a formerly certified ACTFL evaluator.

The participants also took the *Spanish Computer Adaptive Placement Exam* (S-CAPE). This test is used to place examinees in appropriate Spanish classes at Brigham Young University and at other universities. After completing the test, examinees receive a score that corresponds to classes in which they should enroll. This computer test focuses on the examinees' abilities in reading, knowledge of vocabulary, and grammar. As the examinee proceeds and answers a question, the computer bases the difficulty of the next question on the correctness of the answer to the previous one, thus *adapting* to each examinee's ability. For example, if the examinee responds incorrectly, an easier question is given. If the examinee responds correctly, a more difficult question is given. This continues until the level is found at which the examinee can successfully function. It is important to note that this test is used to measure general knowledge and does not test oral or aural ability of students.

The *Computerized Language Instruction and Practice Software* (CLIPS) diagnostic test is used to test all of the major areas in Spanish grammar. This test is used at Brigham Young University to help language learners who want to improve in areas of grammar and determine where they are deficient. In addition to the evaluation instrument, CLIPS provides over 240 different segments in which language learners can work on different grammar points. The segments are based on the grammar elements of nouns, pronouns, modifiers, and verbs. A unit of miscellaneous Spanish grammar, spelling, and writing points is also included in the program. This test looks at reading and writing in relation to Spanish grammar and knowledge of vocabulary, and does not test students' abilities in speaking and listening. The results of the test are classified as passed, deficient, or very deficient.

The *Placement Exam for Advanced Speakers of Spanish* (PEASS) was also given to the participants. This test is designed to place advanced speakers of Spanish into proper university classes. This test consists of three sections: one on listening, where the participants listen to several questions and answer according to their knowledge, another to measure reading, and a third to assess the participants' knowledge of Spanish grammar. This test does not measure students' speaking ability.

A post study abroad survey was given to the participants. It was conducted to measure the participants' impressions of the effects of ethnographic interviews on their attitudes and cultural and linguistic knowledge.

A variety of tests of the participants' linguistic abilities were administered to increase the validity of the results through the use of multiple tests whose reliability had already been established. Though the aforementioned tests have been piloted and tested repeatedly, they were not designed specifically for teachers. However, the age or profession of those taking the tests should not change or negatively affect the results of the tests, since they were designed for all second language learners.

PROCEDURES

Participants were given forms to relate their experience with each of the ten ethnographic interviews that they were to conduct in Spain. They were also given a three-page summary written by the researcher on information found in Spradley's (1979) book *The ethnographic interview* and a copy of one ethnographic interview that Spradley conducted and had written up in his book. On the back of each ethnographic interview summary was a series of questions relating to the emotions and feelings of the participants who were conducting the interviews. These questions were written to determine whether any other factors were influencing the participants' attitudes, emotions, or overall well-being at the times of the ethnographic interviews, and also to assess how the interviewers felt after each interview. The pre- and post-tests were taken on the campus of Brigham Young University.

DATA ANALYSIS

Basic descriptive statistics will be presented to determine what changes occur in the participants' linguistic and cultural abilities. A comparison of the pretest and the posttest scores will be analyzed using a 2-sample *t*-test to measure significance.

RESULTS

What Effect Does Study Abroad Have on the Participants' Linguistic Abilities, Cultural Knowledge, and Attitude Toward the Target Culture?

Reading, Vocabulary, and Grammar

Reading, vocabulary, and grammar were measured with several instruments. The following charts analyze the data for: (1) reading, including vocabulary and grammar, as measured by the S-CAPE, (2) listening as measured by the PEASS listening test, (3) cultural knowledge as measured by a cultural questionnaire, (4) Attitudes toward the target culture as measured by the Likert-type, Bogardus, and semantic differential scales. The results for reading, including vocabulary and grammar, as measured by the CLIPS diagnostic test, grammar and vocabulary as measured by the PEASS grammar test, reading and vocabulary as measured by the PEASS reading test, and speaking as measured by the OTS are not given because their the significance of their results was greater than $p = .05$. Significant results for this study must have a p-value of $\leq .05$ however; some results that approach significance are also given.

Reading, vocabulary, and grammar as measured by the S-CAPE.

Table 1 shows that 14, or 78% of the 18 participants, took the *Spanish Computer Adaptive Placement Exam* (S-CAPE) as a pre- and posttest. As seen in Table 1, the mean of the pretest was 664.87 with a standard deviation of 163.6. The mean of the posttest was 747.93 with a standard deviation of 171.01. A *t*-test comparing the pre-and posttest means showed no statistically significant difference (*p*=.089). Four of the 14 participants' scores declined in the posttest and one remained the same and because the S-CAPE was designed to discriminate between first- and second-year university students. Above a score of 500 on the S-CAPE, the computer classifies all of the scores together. The test was designed to measure novice and intermediate speakers of the language. This test was used to measure those participants who were in the novice and intermediate ranges. All of the participants who scored under 500 on the pretest showed gains on the posttest. The smallest decline was two, while the greatest decline from the pretest to the post test was -117. The greatest gain was 318. The high score on the pretest was 861 and the high score on the posttest was 952. The low score on the pretest was 310 and on the posttest it was 320.

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics for Reading Including Grammar and Vocabulary as Measured by the Spanish Computer Adaptive Placement Exam (S-CAPE)

	No.of Subjects	Mean	Standard Deviation	Low Score	High Score
Pre-test	15	664.87	163.6	310	861
Posttest	15	747.93	171.01	320	952

Listening as measured by the PEASS listening test

Table 2 shows that 12, or 67% of the 18 participants, took both the listening pre- and posttests. The maximum score possible was 40. The mean score on the pretest was 32.33 with a standard deviation of 4.16. As seen in Table 2, the mean score on the posttest was 34.92 with a standard deviation of 2.81. A *t*-test comparing the pre- and posttest means showed no statistically significant difference (*p*=.089). Of the 12 participants who responded, nine showed positive gains and three declined. The maximum gain was nine and the maximum decline was minus three.

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics for Listening as Measured by Placement Exam for Advanced Speakers of Spanish (PEASS) Listening Results

	Number of Participants	Mean	Standard Deviation	Low Score	High Score
Pre-test	12	32.33	4.16	26	39
Posttest	12	34.92	2.81	31	38

Cultural knowledge as measured by a cultural questionnaire

Table 3 shows that 10, or 56% of the 18 participants, took both the pre- and posttests. The maximum possible score was 73. As seen in Table 3, the mean score on the pretest was 39.50 with a standard deviation of 14.07. The mean score on the posttest was 51.90 with a standard deviation of 9.36. A *t*-test comparing the pre- and posttest means showed a statistically significant difference (*p*=.032). Of the 10 participants who responded, nine showed positive gains and one declined. The maximum gain was +32 and the maximum decline was two. The low score on the pretest was 16 and 32 on the posttest. The high score on the pretest was 59 and 61 on the posttest.

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics for Cultural Knowledge as Measured by the Cultural Questionnaire

	Number of Participants	Mean	Standard Deviation	Low Score	High Score
Pre-test	10	39.50	14.07	16	59
Posttest	10	51.90	9.36	32	61

Attitudes toward target culture as measured by the Bogardus scale questionnaire.

Table 4 shows that 10, or 56% of the 18 participants, took both the pre- and posttests. The maximum score possible was 9. As seen in Table 4, the mean score on the pretest was 8.20 with a standard deviation of 1.14. The mean score on the posttest was 8.90 with a standard deviation of .316. A *t*-test comparing the pre- and posttest means showed no statistically significant difference (*p*=.09). Of the 10 participants who responded, four showed positive gains and six remained the same. The maximum gain was three. The low score on the pretest was six and eight on the posttest. The high score on the pretest was 9 and 9 on the posttest.

Table 4 Descriptive Statistics of Attitude toward Target Culture as Measured by the Bogardus Scale Questionnaire

	Number of Participants	Mean	Standard Deviation	Low Score	High Score
Pre-test	10	8.20	1.14	6	9
Posttest	10	8.90	.316	8	9

What Factors Influenced Participants' Attitudes during Their Time Abroad?

Each of the ethnographic interview questions was answered by the participants (the school teachers studying abroad) to ascertain the factors that influenced their attitudes during their time abroad. Of the 18 teachers, 10, or 56%, responded to the question one or more times as the question appeared in each interview. The ten participants who responded completed between three and eleven interviews. Several comments were made regarding both positive and negative experiences abroad. Some of the factors influencing negatively the study abroad experience were problems with fatigue, jet lag, homesickness, getting along with those in the group, traveling, language difficulties, weather, sickness, and service. Some of the factors influencing the study abroad experience positively were food, meeting new people, nightlife, the other teachers, the Brigham Young University professors, not speaking English, and learning new information.

What Effect Does the Use of Ethnographic Interviews Have on Teachers' Attitudes and Linguistic Abilities?

After returning from Spain, the participants were given a survey regarding the effect of conducting ethnographic interviews. They were asked to respond to three questions: (1) How do you feel that doing the ethnographic interviews affected your attitude toward the target culture?, (2) How do you feel that doing the ethnographic interviews affected your knowledge of the target culture?, and (3) How do you feel that doing the ethnographic interviews affected your knowledge of the language?

Table 5 shows that 12, or 67% of 18 responded to all three questions. As seen in Table 5, the mean of question one regarding the effect on attitude toward the target culture was 6.58 with a standard deviation of 1.89. The mean of question two regarding the effect on culture knowledge was 8.67 with a standard deviation of .99. The mean of question three regarding the effect on linguistic ability was 7.12 with a standard deviation of 1.79.

Table 5 Descriptive Statistics for Post Study Abroad Survey on the Effect of the Ethnographic Interviews

	Number of Participants	Mean	Standard Deviation
Effect on attitude toward target culture	12	6.58	1.89
Effect on cultural knowledge	12	8.67	0.99
Effect on linguistic ability	12	7.12	1.79

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

What Effect Does Study Abroad Have on the Participants' Linguistic Abilities, Cultural Knowledge, and Attitude Toward the Target Culture?

This section will explain the results of the different tests that the participants took before and after going abroad. It will also offer an interpretation of the different scores of the participants and factors that might have influenced those results.

Reading, grammar, and vocabulary

Reading, grammar, and vocabulary skills were measured by the *Placement Exam for Advanced Speakers of Spanish* (PEASS), *Spanish Computer Adaptive Placement Exam* (S-CAPE), and the *Computerized Language Instruction and Practice Software* (CLIPS) diagnostic test. The majority of the participants experienced positive gains on the PEASS and CLIPS tests. Some declined on the posttests due to a variety of factors such as fossilization, regression toward the mean, test deviation, etc. The classes taken in Spain were not grammar classes. The classes that were offered dealt with pedagogical issues and not linguistic development. The teachers' improvement on the CLIPS diagnostic test and the PEASS tests could be seen as an ancillary result of interacting with the people and spending five-weeks in Spain. The short time spent in Spain also complicated the measuring of significant changes. Most of the instruments used to measure linguistic changes noted some small changes, but they were not statistically significant. This linguistic gain may also be looked at as the recuperation of abilities that have experienced attrition to some degree. In the case of these teachers, many had studied extensively in the university setting and had achieved a degree of linguistic proficiency that they were able to refresh through exposure to authentic language and native speakers. Another factor influencing the results of the tests was the heterogeneity of the participants. The participants varied greatly in age, experience, time abroad, etc. This diversity may have yielded overall results that were not statistically significant, even though when analyzed on an individual basis, many participants experienced significant gains.

Reading, grammar, and vocabulary skills, as measured by the S-CAPE test did not improve significantly, p=.089. Four participants' scores declined on the posttest. This, more than likely, was due to the fact that the test was designed to give general guidelines for placement in first- and second-year university classes. This test showed that those at a lower level all improved on their posttest. Most of the participants were already beyond this level of proficiency. The participants who scored above a score of 500 on the S-CAPE would fluctuate greatly because the test was not designed to distinguish among those at a more advanced level.

Listening

The participants showed salient gains on the listening portion of the PEASS test. Making marked gains in listening ability during the study abroad experience reinforces the importance of interacting with the target culture and listening to authentic speech. When a lower seven participants' scores were analyzed using the *t*-test, they showed significant gains (*p*=.01). This may reflect a certain degree of homogeneity among the less advanced participants.

The ethnographic interviews provided the participants hours of exposure to native speech in a conversational setting. Though teachers can hear authentic speech at home on international channels and through the use of the Internet, in Spain they were forced to listen to and interact with the people when involved in an interview situation. This participation makes it less of a passive skill and more of an active skill.

Speaking

The oral ability of the participants was measured using the *Oral Testing Software* (OTS). The majority of the teachers improved dramatically in their oral ability. Several teachers showed two level gains on the ACTFL scale. It should be noted that these types of gains are not typical of spending five-weeks abroad, but rather a result of language refreshing. Many teachers had spent two years in a Spanish-speaking country. These participants had achieved a certain level of proficiency, but due to years of exposure only to first- and second-year students, a certain degree of language attrition occurred. When these teachers went abroad, they had the opportunity to raise their proficiency back to the level that they had once achieved. This idea reinforces the importance of going abroad, not only to learn new skills but also to refresh knowledge that has been forgotten due to lack of use.

The ethnographic interviews also provided participants with the opportunity to spend extensive time speaking with natives. This helped them produce speech that could be understood by natives unaccustomed to the speech of non-natives. Some of the teachers who showed little or no improvement in speaking were teachers who had just graduated from the university where they had been involved in classes in Spanish, studying grammar, and practicing Spanish with university colleagues on a regular basis.

Cultural knowledge

The cultural questionnaire that was used to measure cultural knowledge showed a significant difference between the pre- and posttest results (p=.039). All of the teachers showed improvement in cultural knowledge except one. The teachers who improved the most were those who scored the lowest on the pretest. Whether or not the participants were born in the United States or in a Latin-American country did not influence the results of the cultural questionnaire, since some of the greatest gains were made by those born in Latin America. The participant whose posttest score declined had been in Spain before and had some knowledge of the Spanish culture and people, thus scoring relatively high on the pretest. However, two days into the program, this participant moved into a hotel instead of staying in the living arrangements made for all the participants which was to stay with older Spanish widows. This participant also refused to eat the food that was provided as part of the program but preferred to eat at American restaurants that were located in different parts of Spain where the Summer Institute participants visited. Additionally, this participant completed only three of the ethnographic interviews, and those three forms were incomplete. It appears as though these factors caused that this participant, who had some knowledge from a previous visit, became unsure of the knowledge that had been acquired before, and, therefore, his posttest results were lower. This is evidence of possible negative effects of isolation from the target culture and people while participating in a study abroad program.

Attitudinal changes

Attitudinal changes were measured by three different scales: Likert-type, Bogardus, and semantic differential. The Likert-type scale reflected some marked changes in attitude that the participants experienced while studying abroad. Many participants had quite positive attitudes toward Spain and the Spanish people before and after their time abroad. All of the participants showed gains that ranged from one to fifteen on the posttest, where the maximum score possible was 66. It is notable that one participant who showed the greatest gain, +14, was one who had spent two years in Spain as a missionary. Apparently, this participant developed some ideas about the Spanish people that may have affected his attitude due to experiences as a missionary, and these ideas were changed during the study abroad program. The experience of this participant as a missionary may have resulted from limited contact with certain people in situations where he was proselyting. However, being a participant in an academic program, rather than a missionary, allowed different relationships to form with the people. He stated in the ethnographic interviews that he was able to become involved with the young people in Spain by going to dances and interviewing people of his own age. The ethnographic interviews also allowed participants to meet with a variety of people from the target culture and interact on a one-to-one basis.

The Bogardus scale questionnaire showed that the majority of those who took the survey showed little or no change in this scale. It was based on a nine-point scale, which is fairly narrow. One notable change was that of a three-point increase which was from a native from Latin America. This may have resulted from preconceptions about the culture and then finding out, through personal experience, what the target culture and people are really like. Another gain, +2, was shown for the same participant who increased 14 on the Likert-type scale mentioned above, indicating that the experience that this participant had in Spain caused a substantial change in attitude. Six of the participants scored the maximum number on the pre- and posttests, indicating that they had a very positive attitude toward the target culture before and after their time abroad.

The semantic differential scale reflected the least statistically significant change among the participants. This scale analyzed how the participants perceived the target people and culture. Many factors influenced the responses of the participants on this scale. For many, it was their first time in Spain, and preconceived notions may have played a part in these changes. The posttest was also given right after the participants returned from Spain, so they may have felt a bit of "culture shock" after their time abroad. (There is research to suggest that attitudes tend to improve with the passing of time so that after six months or a year, the participants' attitudes would likely be much higher than before. See Bernabeu, 2001).

The participant who showed the greatest decline in the posttest semantic differential questionnaire was the same native Latin American who improved the most on the Bogardus scale. This participant expressed in the semantic differential questionnaire a lack of experience with the Spanish culture and based her responses on the Hispanic culture where she grew up. This participant also stated that her perception of the Spanish culture was that it was comparable to that of Latin America due to similar backgrounds. After spending time in Spain, this participant was able to answer in a more informed way based on personal experiences instead of comparisons to Latin America.

What Factors Influence Teachers' Attitudes during Their Time Abroad?

The participants showed overall increases in their attitudes. This program lasted only five-weeks, yet some participants stated that they were ready to go home after that period of time. Some of the negative influences could be accentuated in a program that lasts longer, where there would be more separation from family, friends, and familiar culture.

What Effect Does the Use of Ethnographic Interviews Have on Teachers Attitudes and Linguistic Abilities?

A post study abroad survey was conducted to measure the participants' impressions of the effects of ethnographic interviews on their attitudes and cultural and linguistic knowledge. Participants felt that ethnographic interviews helped them in all three of those aspects. Teachers felt that ethnographic interviews were especially helpful in the acquisition of cultural knowledge, due to the fact that the participants chose topics or cultural questions that were interesting to them. Many participants chose to ask native informants questions that they had thought about for a long period of time. Several were excited to return to their schools with their new found knowledge and share it with their students. One participant also expressed that she was able to overcome her shyness because she knew that she had to do the ethnographic interviews and so she was always on the lookout for someone whom she could interview.

Regarding linguistic gains, one participant, who was born in Latin America, stated that she was able to learn many new vocabulary words that she was later able to incorporate into her class. Another teacher stated that it was most beneficial for her because she was able to learn a more technical vocabulary as well as vocabulary relating to politics. She stated that there were many anglicized words in Spanish that she did not know how to say in a more formal Spanish. One participant stated, "My language abilities improved to the point that for the first time in my life, I actually felt comfortable talking with my dad." Another student stated, "Before I went to Spain, I couldn't speak Spanish; however, when I came back, I spoke."

Cultural attitudes also improved according to the participants. One participant, who was born in Latin America, stated that she was able to learn more about her heritage and where her ancestors came from. Several participants stated that they were able to learn about different people in Spain and found out that even though we are all quite different, we are all alike in many ways. One participant stated that, through the interviews, he found the people to be "very open and honest." This same participant found Spaniards to be very helpful, relating that one gentleman took him to the nearest metro station when all he asked for were directions. Other comments made by the participants indicated how friendly the people were, how willing to share information and spend time talking about their country. One participant stated, "I feel like the Spanish language expresses feelings more beautifully than English does." Another explained that she was able to overcome some stereotypes that she had of the Spanish youth through the use of the interviews. She also commented on how respectful the people that she met were toward her and the other Americans with whom she traveled. All of the participants had many positive things to say about the people and the interviews, indicating that the interviews proved to be an excellent learning and growing opportunity for them. On the other hand, many stated that one of the negative aspects of the interviews was the lack of time to talk with the people whom they were interviewing.

LIMITATIONS

There were several limitations to this study that should be mentioned. One limitation was that all of the participants were not able to complete all of the posttests. It is not known what the results would have been if all of the data had been gathered. Attempts were made to gather data, but they were often unsuccessful. Another limitation is that the teachers were not properly trained to give ethnographic interviews by an experienced ethnographer, so the interviews that they conducted were based only on ethnographic interviewing principles.

The oral tests were scored by an ex-certified ACTFL evaluator who was not certified at the time of the evaluation of the interviews. This may have affected the validity of the speaking scores. Finally, no control group was used, which made it impossible to compare gains due to the effects of study abroad alone and the effects of study abroad and ethnographic interviews together.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher recommends that a study be designed to gather empirical data as to the effects of the ethnographic interviews on the participants' abilities and knowledge compared to a control group that does not conduct the ethnographic interviews.

The same study could be conducted with a group of high school or university students, and a comparison could then be done between this group and a group of older language learners to measure and compare the effects of the ethnographic interview on the linguistic and cultural knowledge and cultural attitudes of the two age groups. This study could also be performed in a Latin-American country to see if results differ in a non-European country.

Finally, questions could be added to each ethnographic interview sheet that specifically ask how participants feel that the interviews are affecting their linguistic and cultural knowledge and attitude. This information could then be compared with actual measurable gains to see if their perception is reflected on the posttest gains.

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MOTIVATION IN FOREIGN/SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING: SOME PROBLEMS AND IMPLICATIONS

SUNG-HYUN SONG, The University of Texas at Austin

As evidenced by many researchers, motivation appears to play a very important and crucial role in language learning. By reviewing the recent studies[1] on motivation in language learning, this paper attempts to recognize what has been done in the area of foreign and second language learning motivation in the late 1980s and 1990s and to discuss some problems and issues found in those studies in relation to the construct 'motivation' in language learning, particularly the lack of a more comprehensive and complete theory of L2 learning motivation. Some interesting new research topics are provided for further study with reference to L2 learning motivation. Some features of 'motivation' that pose a challenge to the motivation researcher are presented. Issues to be addressed in the future study are put forward and the use of more diverse research methodologies are suggested for a more comprehensive model of L2 learning motivation.

INTRODUCTION

Why are some learners successful in language learning but others are not? Research shows that motivation directly influences how much students interact with target language speakers, how much input they receive in the target language, how often they use L2 (second language) learning strategies, how well they do on curriculum-related achievement tests, how high their general proficiency level becomes, and how long they persevere and maintain L2 skills after language study is over. Motivation is said to determine the extent of active personal involvement in L2 learning. An understanding of the nature and role of motivation in L2 learning therefore appears crucial.

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[1] Though there are many studies on language learning motivation especially in the late 1980s and throughout the 1990s, about twenty studies were chosen for discussion in the present study because those studies were considered to representative of the studies done during that period in terms of motivation in foreign and second language learning. Other important studies (from 1950s to the early 1980s) in this paper were for giving background information. Some fairly recent studies (2000s) were for providing some emerging new motivational research topics in relation to language learning.

The last three decades have seen a considerable amount of research that investigates the nature and role of motivation in the L2 learning process. Gardner and Lambert (1959) were the early scholars who laid the foundation of the theory of L2 learning motivation. After Gardner and Lambert (1972) published a comprehensive summary of the results of a more than ten-year-long research program, the study of motivation in second language learning/acquisition became a serious and distinguished research topic.

In studying the relation between attitude/motivation and the achievement of an L2 learner, Gardner and Lambert identified two motivational orientations: integrative and instrumental.[2] The integrative-instrumental duality soon became widely accepted, and many subsequent studies confirmed the validity of Gardner's and his colleagues' theory (Svanes, 1987). However, Gardner's motivation construct did not go unchallenged. Some investigations did not support the model, either by failing to produce a strong integrative factor or by coming up with insignificant or contradictory results (Cooper and Fishman, 1977; Lukmani, 1972; Oller, 1981; Pierson, Fu, and Lee, 1980). In the early 1990s, a marked shift in thought appeared in papers on L2 motivation as researchers tried to reopen the research agenda in order to shed new light on the subject 'motivation.'

By reviewing recent studies on language learning motivation, the present paper attempts to recognize how thoughts shifted over the years, to find out why motivation is so important in language learning, and to bring the implications and applications from the results of the studies into English language learning and teaching. The studies about language learning motivation will be reviewed in three parts: (a) motivation construct in language learning, (b) motivation and foreign language learning, and (c) motivation and second language learning.

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[2] Integrative motivation refers to the desire to learn the L2 in order to have contact, communicate, or assimilate with members of the L2 community. Instrumental motivation refers to the desire to learn the L2 in order to achieve some practical goal such as job attainment, job advancement, course credit, career success, or greater pay

Analytic review of motivation studies in L2 learning

The Construct 'Motivation' in Language Learning

Presenting two problems with Gardner's integrative/instrumental conceptualization, Ely (1986) tried to discover the types of motivation present in the target population of first year students of Spanish at a northern California university and investigated the relationship between motivation type and strength. In a preliminary survey study, 184 reasons listed by the students were then sorted by the investigator. Seventeen categories were found to account for the reasons given. To measure the strength of motivation, a scale was developed from two questionnaires: pilot and final. Then the questionnaire (this included the type of motivation scale and the final version of the strength of motivation scale) was administered to the students during the eighth week of a ten-week term. Three types of motivation clusters were discovered through factor analysis and the strength of motivation was regressed on the three clusters using a forward stepwise procedure.

The findings indicate the existence of two types of motivation clusters that indeed bear a resemblance to integrative and instrumental orientations. However, the type of motivation clusters and the motivational orientation scales are clearly not isometric, since a number of items are unique to one instrument or the other. In addition, the integrative/instrumental scales do not account for the requirement motivation cluster. Two instructional implications were drawn from the results: first, instructional materials prepared for the target population should be designed to appeal to both clusters of motivation, and second, in order to promote a stronger commitment to language learning, the development of both clusters of type of motivation should be encouraged.

Au (1988) argued that a comprehensive and detailed evaluation of the social-psychological theory[3] of second language learning proposed by Gardner (1983) had not been forthcoming and attempted to give an evaluative account of the theory by drawing on an extensive survey of the literature. Then, the author discussed recent developments in Gardner's theory. Breaking Gardner's theory down into five propositions, the author evaluated each proposition in light of relevant studies.

Proposition 1 (the integrative motive hypothesis) was found to lack generality. Moreover, the notion that the integrative motive is a unitary concept was not supported by the empirical evidence. Proposition 2 (the cultural belief hypothesis) was very much an untested notion because little effort had been expended to define what constitutes a cultural belief. Proposition 3 (the active learner hypothesis) had one serious methodological weakness: L2 achievement had not been controlled for in the relevant study (Gliksman, Gardner, and Smythe, 1982). In proposition 4 (the causality hypothesis), results obtained using the Linear Structural Analysis (LISREL) technique were dubious because LISREL is capable of establishing a reverse temporal causal path. It is extremely doubtful that the LISREL results as obtained by Gardner and his associates demonstrated empirical causal relationships. Other relevant results suggested a causal relation opposite to that predicted by the causality hypothesis. Finally, proposition 5 (the two-process hypothesis), showed conflicting evidence to exist because linguistic-aptitude measures sometimes relate to integrative motive measures but do not in other studies.

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) argued that work to date on the topic of motivation in second language learning had been limited in two senses: it had been almost exclusively social-psychological in approach, and it has failed to distinguish between the concepts of motivation and attitude, especially attitude toward the target language culture. They claimed that this social-psychological approach had been so dominant that alternative concepts have not been seriously considered.

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[3] Gardner's theoretical model can be broken into five major propositions: (a) integrative motive is positively related to L2 achievement, (b) cultural beliefs within a particular milieu could influence the development of the integrative motive and the extent to which the integrative motive relates to L2 achievement, (c) integratively motivated L2 learners achieve high L2 proficiency because they are active learners, (d) integrative motive causally affects L2 achievement, and (e) linguistic aptitude and integrative motive constitute two independent factors affecting L2 achievement.

The failure to distinguish between social attitude and motivation has made it difficult (a) to see the connection between motivation as defined in previous second language studies and motivation as discussed in other fields, (b) to make direct links from motivation to psychological mechanisms of second language learning, and (c) to see clear implications for language pedagogy from such previous second language research. The authors presented a research agenda meant to stimulate a cautious, thorough approach to this topic through the use of a wide variety of methodologies.

Arguing from a conceptual point of view that much of the work on motivation in second language learning has not dealt with motivation at all, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) adopted a definition of motivation in terms of choice, engagement, and persistence, as determined by interest, relevance, expectancy, and outcomes. They suggested that such a definition will allow the concept of motivation to continue to be linked with attitudes as a distal factor, while at the same time providing a more satisfactory connection to language learning processes and language pedagogy. They also suggested that a theory of the role of motivation in second language learning ought to be general and not restricted to particular contexts or groups.

The purpose of Dornyei's (1994) study was to help foster further understanding of L2 motivation from an educational perspective. In this paper, a number of relevant motivational components (many of them largely unexploited in L2 research) were described and integrated into a multilevel second language motivation construct. The author attempted to integrate the social-psychological constructs postulated by Gardner and his associates into the proposed new framework of L2 motivation. Based on the research literature and the results of Clement, Dornyei, and Noels's (1994) classroom study, the author conceptualized a general framework of L2 motivation. This framework consists of three levels: the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level.

The first (language) level focuses on orientations and motives related to various aspects of the second language. This dimension was described by two broad motivational subsystems: integrative and instrumental motivational subsystems. The second (learner) level involves a mixture of affects and cognitions that form fairly stable personality traits. Two motivational components underlying the motivational processes at this level were identified: need for achievement and self-confidence (which encompasses various aspects of language anxiety, perceived L2 competence, attributions about past experiences, and self-efficacy). The third (learning situation) level is made up of intrinsic and extrinsic motives and motivational conditions concerning three areas (course-specific, teacher-specific, group-specific motivational components).

Oxford and Shearin (1994) offered the beginnings of an expanded theory of second language learning motivation by suggesting several ways by which the notion of L2 learning motivation might be extended. They offered motivational material that was well known in the fields of general, industrial, educational, and cognitive developmental psychology but that had not yet been directly applied to the L2 field. They tried to integrate this new material into the current theory base of L2 learning motivation. After presenting four current conditions clouding our comprehension of L2 learning motivation, they explored other motivation and development theories and implications for L2 learning motivation.

The four conditions were the following: (a) absence of a consensus on a definition of L2 learning motivation, (b) confusion surrounding motivation in second vs. foreign language situations, (c) L2 research's omission of some key motivational and developmental theories taken from many areas of psychology, and (d) teachers' lack of knowledge about their students' real reasons for learning a language. This study also explored several additional theories that might be helpful in expanding the existing concept of L2 learning motivation.

From general psychology, they discussed four classes of motivation theories: need theories, instrumentality theories, equity theories, and reinforcement theories. They also saw how industrial psychologists have integrated some of these theories with social cognition concepts to produce an enlarged motivation theory and considered how educational psychologists have applied some of these ideas to classroom learning. And finally, they investigated the cognitive developmental theories of Piaget and Vygotsky as possible sources of explanation for L2 learning motivation.

By investigating the relation of a number of new measures of motivation such as persistence, attention, goal specificity, and causal attributions to each other, to existing measures of attitudes and motivation, and to indices of achievement in French courses, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) addressed the issue that research concerned with motivation in second language acquisition would benefit from a consideration of motivational constructs from other research areas.

The hypotheses for this study were derived in the context of a structural equation modeling analysis: (a) motivational behavior will have a direct influence on achievement, (b) French language dominance will also have a direct influence on achievement, (c) goal salience, valence, and self-efficacy will directly influence the level of motivational behavior, (d) adaptive attributions have a direct influence on self-efficacy, (e) language attitudes have direct influences on goal salience, valence, and self-efficacy, and (f) French language dominance has a direct influence on adaptive attributions. The subjects consisted of 75 students enrolled in French language courses in a Northern Ontario francophone secondary school.

Support was found for a LISREL (linear structural equation model) linking different aspects of motivation with language attitudes, French language dominance, and French achievement. The model proposed in this study suggested three variables that mediated the relationship between language attitudes and motivational behavior. Those mediators were 'goal salience,' 'valence,' and 'self-efficacy.' The model also specified that achievement was directly influenced by French language dominance and motivational behavior. Even after French language dominance has been accounted for, however, motivational behavior was still a significant determinant of achievement.

Motivation and Foreign Language Learning

Ramage (1990) investigated the predictability of motivational and attitudinal factors in the continuation of foreign language study beyond the second year among students in two different geographical areas in the U.S. High school students in three classes each of second-year French and Spanish participated in the study. Reasoning that identifying students' motivations for foreign language study is a prerequisite to developing interventions that promote interest and continuation in foreign language study, the author did this study to distinguish motivations of students who chose to continue foreign language study beyond the required two-year period from those who did not.

The subjects for the final study were 138 students of level 2 French and Spanish from three different U.S. high schools (two were in northern California, one in Arkansas). A questionnaire concerning various aspects of students' motivations and attitudes was developed for use in this study. An open-ended approach was used to identify students' motivations for taking a foreign language.

The results of this study indicated that motivational and attitudinal factors successfully discriminated between continuing and discontinuing students. Interest in culture and in learning the language thoroughly – including reading, writing, and speaking it – distinguished continuing students from discontinuing students. Interest in fulfilling a college entrance requirement primarily characterized the discontinuing students. Students' grade level when they took the second level of a foreign language and their grade in the foreign language course were also found to be discriminating variables. This implies that the two-year college requirement be changed to a proficiency requirement. Proficiency should be evaluated in terms of communicative, speaking, and writing ability rather than in terms of mastering grammatical structures.

Assuming that the results obtained from second language acquisition contexts are not directly applicable to foreign language learning situations, Dornyei (1990) investigated the components of motivation in foreign language learning. Subjects in this study were 134 young adult learners of English (82 females and 52 males) who were enrolled in the Hungarian branch of the British "International House" organization language school. Sixty-eight of them were beginners with less than a year of instruction; sixty-six were intermediate learners in their fourth or fifth terms of learning. A motivational questionnaire developed for this study was composed of two sections. In the first section, fifteen language use areas were listed and students were asked to indicate on a six-point scale the importance to themselves of each field. The second section contained a mixture of different kinds of characteristic statements concerning intentions, beliefs, values, interests, and attitudes presented in a six-point Likert-scale format.

The results of this study showed that instrumental motives significantly contributed to motivation in foreign language learning contexts. Affective factors that traditionally have been part of 'integrative motivation' were found to contribute to motivation as well. In addition to those two subsystems, need for achievement and attributions about past failures were also shown to contribute considerably to motivation in foreign language learning.

General implications for further research were presented. First, instrumentality and integrativeness are broad tendencies rather than straightforward universals. Next, foreign language learning motivation involves the two further components of 'need for achievement' and 'attributions about past failures' (generally ignored in second language acquisition research). Finally, the nature of foreign language learning motivation varies as a function of the level of the target language to be mastered; therefore, an adequate motivation construct should incorporate a time factor as well.

Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, and Sumrall (1993) examined 107 high school students who were learning Japanese through the medium of satellite television. This study focused on the factors that influence student achievement in Japanese in the satellite setting, looking at the following variables as possible influences on language achievement: motivation, language learning styles and learning strategies, gender, course level, and previous foreign language learning experience. Specific research questions related to motivation in this study were: (a) what major types of language learning motivation exist among students in the JSP (Japanese Satellite Program), (b) how do a host of variables (gender, course level, etc.) affect language learning motivation of JSP students, and (c) how do all these variables affect Japanese language achievement scores of JSP students?

Results showed that many student features played a role in language achievement. In the satellite instruction context, these characteristics – especially motivation, sensory styles, gender, and learning strategy use – made a great difference. Motivation was the most important predictor of success in this study. Based on these results, it was implied that teachers boost language learning motivation by providing relevant, interesting, useful activities that the students see as leading toward their own personal learning goals such as jobs, travel, and friendships. Language learning motivation was also increased by positive feedback, diplomatic correction of errors, and a relaxed classroom climate.

Clement et al. (1994) inquired as to whether the orientation pattern obtained by Dornyei's 1990 study – particularly the prominence of the instrumental orientation – was a function of this specific sample or of the more general foreign language learning environment. In other words, this study was seeking to reiterate the pertinence of a social-psychological perspective to L2 learning to the isolated context of the foreign language classroom in a unicultural context (e.g., Hungary). The participants were 301 (117 males and 182 females) secondary school pupils in 21 groups who were registered in 11 different schools in various parts of Budapest. The materials consisted of a questionnaire addressed to the students and a questionnaire addressed to the teachers. The scales used in both questionnaires included some items adapted from scales used in previous studies (Clement, 1986; Dornyei, 1990) and some items developed specifically for this study.

Factor analysis of the attitude, anxiety, and motivation scales confirmed the existence of attitude-based (integrative motive) and self-confidence motivational subprocesses and revealed the presence of relatively independent classroom-based subprocesses characterized by classroom cohesion and evaluation. Correlational analyses of these clusters further revealed that, while all subprocesses were associated with achievement, self-confidence and anxiety showed no relationship to the classroom atmosphere. These results gave empirical grounding to a recent development in L2 methodology whereby group dynamic activities are incorporated into the L2 syllabus in order to foster various aspects of group development and enhance group cohesion with the aim of creating an environment more conducive to learning.

Dodick (1996) attempted to determine why native-born American students in the class are less motivated and less successful at learning French than non-native born students or immigrant students. This study took place over a period of nine weeks at a high school in Rochester, New York. The process consisted of observing and recording the teaching of three different Grade 9 level one French classes. Notes about students and documents were taken and interviews with students and teachers were conducted.

This study found that the motivation of the native born students observed was low in relation to the non-native born students for many reasons. The teachers interviewed believed that their school standards were too lenient compared with European public high schools. According to them, European high school students prepared at age 16 for either an academic or a vocational career, examinations and units tests were far more rigorous, and the school itself was seen more as a serious institution and less as a place to socialize. Also, the New York state foreign language requirement was regarded negatively by students, teachers, and parents, resulting in some students doing 'seat time,'[4] which was felt to be unproductive. Furthermore, the teachers believed that many of their students were too dependent as learners. The teachers also believed that the school administration regarded their subject as not truly academic. Finally, the students and teachers interviewed believed that native-born American students lacked an awareness of other cultures because the media was not truly exposing people to events in other countries. For the benefit of other teachers, Dodick (1996) outlined strategies, advocating a move away from traditional foreign language instruction towards a more culturally-oriented curriculum for dealing with unmotivated students.

Wen (1997) investigated the motivational factors associated with the learning of Chinese by students who were from Asian and Asian-American backgrounds. Thus, this study focused on exploring the reasons why some students persisted in Chinese language study while others did not as well as possible interactions between learning a 'truly foreign' language and motivation. 122 students from six Chinese classes at two U.S. universities participated in this study. A two-part questionnaire was administered during regular class sessions: one to gather information about their motivation and the other to gather information about their expectations of learning outcomes. Factor analysis was conducted to identify the motivation variables. Those factors were then examined through regression procedures. The scores for each item were computed by using the formula[5] of the motivation and expectancy model and were compared by using a t-test.

The results of this study indicated that intrinsic interest in Chinese culture and the desire to understand one's own cultural heritage were the initial motivations for students to start learning the Chinese language. Expectations of learning task and effort help students to continue their Chinese at the intermediate level. In addition, motivational factors correlated significantly with desired learning outcomes from expectancy theory. Based upon the findings, two implications were presented. The first was that in order to maximize student learning, the language requirement should be changed to one that measures how much students can use language to communicate. The second stated that it is important for teachers to help students develop their goals, a realistic expectation of the learning process, and a strong sense of self-efficacy.

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[4] The author used the term 'seat time' in the sense that a student was taking an L2 class only to fulfill a requirement, thereby indicating no interest in learning the language per se, but only to get through the course.

[5] The formula for the expectancy theory is: $f = \text{motive} \times \text{ability}$ where $\text{motive} = \text{valence} \times \text{expected outcome}$, and $\text{ability} = \text{expected learning ability}$. To apply expectancy models to language learning, it is assumed that valence of learning outcomes, expectancies of learning ability, and probability of obtaining the outcomes greatly influence the motivation of

Motivation and Second Language Learning

Gardner & Lysynchuk (1990) were concerned with the nature of the loss of French language skills of 128 Grade 9 high school students after a 9-month absence of instruction in French as a second language and the extent to which any such loss was related to attitudes, motivation, anxiety, language aptitude, and/or opportunities to use the language during the incubation period (i.e., period where the language is not being studied). Three research questions were addressed: the first one dealt with the nature of any changes in language proficiency that took place over the incubation period, the second one dealt with correlates of language loss during the incubation period and considered methodological issues relevant to such an analysis, and the third one focused on the applicability of a causal model of language acquisition to an extended situation. Subjects for this investigation were enrolled in French as a second language in the regular school program and participated in three testing sessions (September 1986, December 1986, September 1987). Measures of attitudes, motivation, language anxiety, and language aptitude were used for the analysis.

Results showed that students perceived significant losses in speaking, reading, writing, and understanding French 9 months after training ended.

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students.

Written production skills were also found to decline significantly over the 9-month period, though recognition skills did not. Students' attitudes toward the second-language community and toward the learning situation also declined significantly, while their anxiety about using French increased. Few of the correlations of aptitude, attitude, motivation, or language anxiety with proficiency change scores were significant, although the correlations were substantial and stable from pretest to posttest.

Gardner and MacIntyre had two main purposes for their 1991 study, the major purpose being to investigate the effects of integrative and instrumental motivation on the learning of French/English vocabulary, and the secondary one being to assess the consequences of computer administration of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). Ninety-two introductory psychology students participated in this two-part study in order to fulfill a course requirement. None of the subjects had studied French since their senior year of high school. In the first part, the subjects responded to items assessing eight different attitudinal/motivational characteristics. In the second part, subjects were given six trials to learn 26 English/French word pairs using the anticipation method. Testing was done by computer.

The major results of this study concerned the effects of situation-based motivation (instrumental motivation) and individual-based motivation (integrative motivation) on the learning of L2 material. Three dependent measures were: (a) achievement on each trial, (b) the mean time spent studying the pairs in each trial, (c) the mean time spent viewing the English words, before subjects attempted to type them in their French equivalent. The results demonstrated that both integrative and instrumental motivation facilitated learning. Both integratively and instrumentally motivated students spent more time thinking about the correct answer than those not so motivated, suggesting that both elements had an energizing effect. Computer administration appeared not to detract from the internal consistency reliability of the subscales used.

Gardner, Day, and MacIntyre (1992) examined the effects of both integrative motivation and anxiety on computerized vocabulary acquisition using a laboratory analog procedure as a microcosm of second language learning. By videotaping the subjects while learning, the authors attempted to induce anxiety in one group of subjects. Forty-nine introductory psychology students participated in this experiment to meet course requirements. For the first part, subjects answered 88 randomly presented Likert items to assess their levels of integrative motivation, anxiety. In the second part, subjects had six trials to learn 26 rare English/French word pairs presented on a microcomputer. The computer recorded the amount of time each subject spent viewing each English stimulus word, their French response, and the amount of time they spent studying the English/French pair.

Subjects higher in integrative motivation showed superior vocabulary acquisition and tended to initiate a translation more quickly than did those lower in integrative motivation. The anxiety manipulation did not appear to influence behavior during the learning trials. A second set of analyses revealed that subjects with more positive attitudes tended to respond more quickly and consistently to the attitude items. The authors presented two important implications for individuals interested in L2 acquisition based on the results. The first one was that the laboratory analog procedure could be used profitably to investigate the language learning process. The second one had to do with the relation among attitudes, motivation, anxiety, and second language learning that emerged. It was found that anxiety and motivation are opposite ends of the same dimension, there being motivated, confident students and anxious, unmotivated students.

DISCUSSION

Theoretical Framework on 'Motivation' Construct

Grounding motivation research in a social-psychological framework, Gardner's work powerfully brought motivational issues to the attention of the L2 field. Since the time when Gardner and Lambert identified two motivational orientations (integrative and instrumental), much research on L2 learning motivation has focused on integrative and instrumental motivation.

However, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) argued that L2 learning motivation studies had some limitations in that those motivational studies had been almost exclusively social-psychological in approach and had failed to distinguish between the concepts of attitude toward the target language culture and motivation. Oxford & Shearin (1994) proposed to think about other possible kinds of L2 learning motivation and their differential importance.

Three articles (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1994; Oxford and Shearin, 1994) that expanded the base of knowledge about the motivation to learn another language have agreement on two points: (a) all three take, as a starting point, the view that research conducted by Gardner and his associates has overwhelmed and somehow limited thinking in this area, and (b) all three articles discuss motivational concepts drawn from other research areas and argue that a greater understanding of the motivation to learn a second language will result by considering them.

Tremblay and Gardner (1995), reacting to the above three studies, investigated the relation of many new motivation measures such as persistence, attention, goal specificity, and causal attributions to each other, to existing measures of attitude and motivation, and to indices of achievement. They concluded that the new motivational measures have added to our understanding of motivation in language learning.

Components of Motivation

In terms of the components of L2 learning motivation, there are many differences among researchers. Clement et al. (1994) presented three components of foreign language classroom motivation: the integrative motive, self-confidence, and the classroom environment. Ely (1986) identified three types of motivation clusters – 'A,' 'B,' and 'C' – in the study through the descriptive analysis. A and B correspond to integrative and instrumental motivation orientation, respectively, and C is 'requirement motivation.' The findings indicated the existence of two types of motivation clusters that indeed bear a resemblance to integrative and instrumental orientations.

In Dornyei (1990), four components of motivation were found to contribute to motivation in foreign language learning: an instrumental motivational subsystem, an integrative motivation subsystem, a need for achievement, and attributes of past failures. Dornyei (1994) later proposed three levels as components of foreign language learning motivation: the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level. The learning situation level itself has three subcomponents: course-specific, teacher-specific, and group-specific motivational components.

The different presentations of the components of motivation among the researchers are, in part, attributable to the different languages being learned, the different contexts, and the different subjects. It is very important that we consider the situational characteristics (particularly the differences between foreign and second language settings) because students may have different reasons for learning another language depending on the different learning situations (i.e., whether they are in an EFL or ESL learning context).

Relationship between Motivation and Language Achievement

Regardless of the types of motivation, motivation facilitates learning (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner et al., 1992). In Wen (1997), motivational factors correlated significantly with desired learning outcomes. Oxford et al. (1993) showed that motivation was the best predictor of Japanese language achievement. Motivational factors were successfully discriminated between continuing and discontinuing students (Ramage, 1990). In the light of the results of the studies above, it is difficult to deny that motivation is a very important factor in language learning achievement.

PROBLEMS (OPEN ISSUES) AND SUGGESTIONS

First, there exists a lively debate over the use of self-reports in research on affective states in language learning. Much research on motivation has exclusively relied upon self-report questionnaires and correlational studies. We have to develop a research program that uses survey instruments along with observational measures, ethnographic work together with action research and introspective measures as well as true experimental studies. Second, there is no agreement on the types of motivation (that is, absence of a consensus on the definition of L2 learning motivation). Many motivational components have been verified by very little or no empirical research in the L2 field.

Third, is it possible to distinguish between integrative and instrumental motivation and does the integrative/instrumental conceptualization capture the full spectrum of student motivation? A particular reason for language study has traditionally been either integrative or instrumental. However, there are many reasons that do not neatly fit the instrumental and integrative split: for example, personal motivation, achievement motivation, assimilative motivation, and so on. Fourth, does motivation cause successful language learning or vice versa? Causal relationships between motivation and language success need to be tested in a variety of contexts and among different groups and different languages.

Fifth, how can learners be motivated? In Dornyei (1994), a list of strategies to motivate language learners is presented, drawing partly on the author's own personal experience and partly on findings in educational psychology research. However, the usefulness of these strategies should be based on empirical studies and results. Sixth, how does L2 learning motivation work in second vs. foreign language environments? The question of whether motivations differ between learners of second and foreign languages has been repeatedly raised in recent years and is very important to address.

EMERGING NEW MOTIVATIONAL THEMES

There are many interesting new research topics that have received attention during the past few years. Little research has been done in the past to explore the relationship between the teacher's own level of motivation and the students' learning commitment. Recently, however, researchers in the L2 field such as Pennington (1995) and Doyle and Kim (1999) have been tackling this and similar relationships in an attempt to provide a firm foundation for future research.

The relationship between learning strategy use and student motivation has been an issue of interest in educational psychology for over a decade. In the L2 field, Schmidt, MacIntyre and their colleagues initiated the systematic study of the interrelationship between motivation and learning strategy use in the mid-1990s (MacIntyre and Noels, 1996; Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy, 1996). Building on these results, Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) have recently further investigated the topic by obtaining data from college students.

Motivation research typically conceptualizes a 'motive' as a kind of 'inducement,' that is, as a positive force whose strength, says Dornyei, ranges on a continuum from zero to strong. However, very little is usually said about influences that have a detrimental rather than a positive effect on motivation, that is, which 'de-energizes' rather than boosts a person's motivation. Reviewing the few relevant L2 studies available, demotivation is a salient phenomenon in L2 learning (Dornyei, 2001).

From a practicing teacher's point of view, the most pressing question related to motivation is not what motivation is but rather how it can be increased. Very little work has been done in the L2 field to devise and test motivational strategies systematically. The only published empirical study on motivational strategies in the L2 field is a teacher survey that Dorneyi and Csizer (1998) conducted for 200 teachers to rate the importance of a set of 51 strategies and to estimate how often they used the strategies in their own practice. Ten strategies that teachers considered most important from a motivational point of view were as follows: (a) set a personal example with your own behavior, (b) create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom, (c) present the tasks properly, (d) develop a good relationship with the learners, (e) increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence, (f) make the language classes interesting, (g) promote learner autonomy, (h) personalize the learning process, (i) increase the learners' goal-orientedness, and (j) familiarize learners with the target language culture.

SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

As pointed out in Gardner and Tremblay (1994), though disagreement arises when trying to capture the essence of the motivation construct, there seems to be a general agreement among motivation researchers (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1994; Oxford and Shearin, 1994) that motivation plays a major role in second language learning. Researchers disagree strongly on virtually everything concerning the concept 'motivation,' and there are also some serious doubts as to whether 'motivation' is nothing more than an obsolete umbrella term used for a wide range of variables that have little to do with each other. Perhaps the only thing about motivation most researchers would agree on is that it concerns the direction and magnitude of human behavior. That is, motivation is responsible for (a) why people decide to do something, (b) how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and (c) how hard they are going to pursue it.

Some features of 'motivation' that pose a challenge to researchers are the following. First, motivation is abstract and not directly observable. Motivation is an abstract term that refers to various mental processes and states. It is therefore not subject to direct observation but must be inferred from some indirect indicator, such as the individual's self-report accounts, overt behaviors, or physiological responses. This means that there are no objective measures of motivation. All the motivation indices used in research studies are inherently subjective, and one of the most difficult tasks of the motivation research is to keep this level of subjectivity to a minimum.

Second, motivation is a multi-faceted concept that cannot be represented by means of simple measures like the results of a few questionnaire items. Researchers need to bear this in mind when conceptualizing and assessing motivation variables, and they should also be aware of the fact that the specific motivation measure or concept they are focusing on is likely to represent only a segment of a more intricate psychological construct.

Third, motivation is inconstant. Motivation is not stable but changes dynamically over time. It is therefore questionable how accurately a one-time examination (e.g. the administration of a questionnaire at a single point in time) can represent the motivational basis of a prolonged behavioral sequence such as L2 learning. Even though the unobservable, multifaceted, and dynamically changing nature of motivation makes its study admittedly complicated, there are a variety of research methodological tools at our disposal to help us with our enquiries and to avoid pitfalls.

Traditionally, L2 motivation research has extensively used various rating scales developed for the measurement of attitudes. Data obtained by such scales have been typically processed by means of inferential statistical procedures such as correlation or factor analysis. As a first step toward future motivation research, qualitative approaches have to complement traditional quantitative research methodologies. Interpretive techniques such as in-depth interviews or case studies are in many ways better suited to explore the internal dynamics of the intricate and multilevel construct of student motivation than quantitative methods. And the richness of qualitative data may also provide new slants on old questions. Therefore, in order to better understand the complex mental processes involved in second language acquisition, a combining of qualitative and quantitative approaches should be considered.

For a more comprehensive theory of L2 motivation, the following issues should be addressed: (a) *consciousness vs. unconsciousness* (distinguishing conscious vs. unconscious influences on human language learning behavior), (b) *cognition vs. affect* (explaining in a unified framework both the cognitive and the affective/emotional influences on human language learning behavior), (c) *reduction vs. comprehensiveness* (mapping the vast array of potential influences on human language learning behavior onto smaller, theoretically driven constructs), (d) *parallel multiplicity* (accounting for the interplay of multiple parallel influences on human language learning behavior), (e) *context* (explaining the interrelationship of the individual organism, the individual's immediate environment and the broader socio-cultural context), and (f) *time* (accounting for the diachronic nature of motivation – that is, conceptualizing a motivation construct with a prominent temporal axis).

CONCLUSION

Second language learning is a complex process in which motivation appears to play a major role. A fully articulated model of L2 learning motivation still has not been presented because such a model would demand further debate and development among many experts and scholars.

As mentioned before, Crookes & Schmidt (1991), Dornyei (1994), and Oxford & Shearin (1994) suggest that research concerned with motivation in second language acquisition would benefit from a consideration of motivational constructs from other research areas. They also discuss a number of motivational theories and concepts from the psychological literature and started an expanded model that enhances and enlarges the current L2 learning motivation theory in fairly useful ways.

However, none of them present empirical evidence that supports the validity of those concepts as important components of L2 learning. Therefore, a more comprehensive and complete theory of L2 learning motivation should be based on and supported by systematic empirical studies as well as theoretical development. And situational characteristics – the foreign language learning vs. second language learning setting – should also be considered because components of motivation and the use of language learning strategies can be different depending on different learning situation. For the benefit of L2 learners, the development of a complete model through wide-ranging discussion, debate, and modification should be considered a very important and urgent work.

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LEARNING TO TEACH SPANISH: A CASE STUDY

GLORIA VÉLEZ-RENDÓN, Purdue University, Calumet

This case study explores the student teaching experience of a Spanish language teacher candidate through her own eyes. It sheds some light on how the participant's prior learning experiences and beliefs inform her initial practice, how she develops her teaching skills, what contextual factors affect her learning-to-teach process, and the sources from which she draws her knowledge (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Johnston & Irujo, 2001). Multiple data collection instruments that generated relevant and rich data to illuminate the research questions were used. They included open-ended interviews, participant observation, class videotaping, stimulus recall procedures, and lesson plans. Analysis of the data revealed that the interplay of factors such as the background the participant brought with herself added to her level of commitment and an effective mentoring relationship contributed to a productive learning-to-teach experience.

INTRODUCTION

Very little attention has been paid to understanding how foreign language teachers learn to teach, how they develop their teaching skills, how they link theory and practice, how their prior learning experiences inform their emerging practice, and from which sources they draw their knowledge (Freeman & Richards, 1996; Johnston & Irujo, 2001). It is argued that the preparation of language teachers has been based more on tradition and opinion than on theoretical and/or research-based principles (Bernhardt & Hammadou, 1987; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Schultz, 2000). Calls have been made for a reconceptualization of the field of second language teacher learning and the development of a research agenda that places prospective teachers at the center and focuses on uncovering the issues involved in learning to teach a foreign language (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Schultz, 2000). A more principled approach to preparing language teaches is crucial now that the profession faces the challenges posed by the upcoming Program Standards for Foreign Language Teacher Preparation that delineate " the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to be an effective language teacher" (The NCATE Foreign Language Teacher Standards Writing Team, 2001,p.4).

This case study is designed to make a contribution to the nascent body of publications reporting research on language teacher learning. Specifically, it hopes to add to our emerging understanding of what it is involved in learning to teach a foreign language and what underlies this process from the perspective of a Spanish language teacher candidate.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The Role of Prior Learning Experiences in Learning to Teach

Several researchers have examined the impact of prior learning experiences on teacher learning (Bailey, Bergthold, Braunstein, Fleischman, Holbrook, Tuman, Waissbluth, & Zambo, 1996; Freeman, 1993; Gutiérrez, 1996; Johnson, 1992, 1994; Moran, 1996; Numrich, 1996). Their findings support the notion that teachers' prior learning experiences are pivotal in shaping teachers' theories, beliefs, and ways of knowing. In some cases, prior learning experiences have more impact on what teacher candidates do in the classroom than what they learned in their education programs. Prospective teachers use previous teachers as models to fashion their own teaching. The findings also point to the pervasive influence of the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975). According to this construct, prospective teachers spend approximately thirteen thousand hours in a classroom as students and thus observing teachers. As a result of this continuous exposure to teachers and teaching, they have deeply ingrained beliefs about the teaching and learning process when they enter the teacher education programs. These beliefs act as filters to screen their professional education coursework and are very difficult to change (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992).

Professional Education Programs

The ability of teacher education programs to prepare prospective teachers effectively has been put into question in the last decade. The prevailing trassmisive-oriented approach to teacher education provides prospective teachers with a set of codified knowledge for which they have little use (Kagan, 1992; Wideen, Mayer-Smith, &

Moon, 1998). Many prospective teachers feel that their professional education programs afford them with abstract and theoretical concepts and little practical knowledge. They are expected to acquire the latter form their cooperating teachers, who ultimately play a fundamental role in prospective teachers' growth (Jacnicke & Samiroden 1991). Johnson (1994) found that the images prospective teachers had of their programs were less influential than those referring to their previous learning experiences. Prospective teachers' references to their teacher preparation programs usually focused on how they viewed the different theories of second language acquisition and whether or not they were in agreement with them. Johnson's findings suggest that prospective teachers evaluate the appropriateness of second language acquisition theories in the light of their initial teaching experiences and beliefs.

The Student Teaching Experience

During their student teaching experience, many prospective teachers see their images shattered, have to face the problems emerging from their inadequate training, and are greatly concerned with survival. They plan instruction more geared to avoiding misbehavior than to promoting learning and they are more focused on their own teaching behaviors than on student learning (Kagan, 1992). Often the most important initial concern of student teachers is establishing a comfortable classroom environment and developing class management skills (Numrich, 1996). It has also been found that prospective teachers spend a lot of time planning during their student teaching practice. They usually have difficulty sequencing topics. Although they understand the importance of designing instruction that is appropriate both for the subject matter and for the learners, they are able to do so only in a superficial way. Prospective teachers also have difficulties explaining subject matter to their students. Although they might be aware of student individual differences, they are unable to shape instruction and materials to meet these differences at this stage. The student teaching experience offers prospective teachers varied opportunities to develop their pedagogical content knowledge, that is, what teachers need to know about teaching their particular subject matter. Similarly, student teaching also provides opportunities for the development of prospective teachers' pedagogical reasoning skills, which is the ability to translate knowledge into instruction to suit the different backgrounds and needs brought by learners (Shulman, 1986; Borko & Livingston,1989).

THE STUDY

The data for this study was drawn from a larger investigation that examined the student teaching experience of three foreign language teacher candidates. The research questions guiding this inquiry are:

What does the participant bring to the student teaching process? What are her beliefs about language teaching and learning? What is her educational biography? How does all this inform her student teaching practice?

How is it like to learn to teach a foreign language? What contextual factors affect the participant's initial practice?

What are the source and the nature of the participant's subject matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge?

RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

A qualitative study using the lenses of phenomenology was considered appropriate to capture the lived experiences of the participant as she initiated her journey towards becoming foreign language teacher at a large Midwest high school. Phenomenology is concerned with experiences as they appear in consciousness. The phenomenological-oriented research focuses on the experiences as lived by the participants and on the meanings they attach to them. The underlying assumption is that reality is what participants perceive it to be (Kvale, 1996; Moustakas, 1994). Thus, the purpose and challenge of a phenomenological-oriented study is to render an account of how a person experiences his/her own world from his/her point of view.

Background of the study: Participant and Site

Terry was a white twenty-two year old female and a non-native speaker of Spanish. She was enrolled in the teacher education program at Central University, a large research school located in the Midwest. Her mother was a first-grade teacher and her father worked as civil servant in her town. Terry spent a good deal of time in her mother's classroom when growing up, but she never thought she would become a teacher.

The study was conducted at Morrison High School, which serves as Professional Development School (PDS) site for a number of teacher preparation programs from Central University, including the foreign languages methods course in which the participant in this study had been enrolled the semester prior to her student teaching. During the PDS practice, teacher candidates spend thirty hours on site working closely with foreign language faculty at Morrison High School, obtaining in this way first-hand experience in foreign language classrooms and quality guidance from experienced teachers. Teacher candidates complete a number of tasks that include class observation, micro-teaching, student tutoring, grading, material development, and journal writing.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Data collection for this investigation was carried out throughout the eleven-week c student teaching term during the spring of 1999. The combination of the multiple data ollection sources used in this study generated pertinent and rich data to illuminate the research questions outlined above. The data collection sources included: 1) open-ended interviews, 2) participant observation, 3) video-taped lessons, 4) stimulus-recall procedures, and 5) lesson planning handbooks (See Appendix A for a sample of interview questions).

DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

Data analysis took place both during and after the data collection phase. The early analysis consisted of reading the data to identify themes and writing comments and reflections of my emerging thinking about the data. Formal analysis after the data collection phase followed the procedures outlined by Strauss & Corbin (1990). Guided by the research questions, I closely scrutinized sets of data to identify patterns and subsequently assign labels to the patterns generated, noting reflections and remarks in the margins. In order to reduce the patterns, I grouped them provisionally around concepts and went back to the data to look for instances to confirm or to question the appropriateness of the categories.

Validity

A number of strategies used in this study contributed to its validity. First, the various data collection techniques used afforded the means for triangulation of sources. Second, sufficient time was spent in the field to ensure the observation of a wide array of events in its full cycle allowing me to document participant's experience in satisfactory detail. In addition to this, clippings from the data were used for supporting claims. Quotes from the participants are essential in phenomenological-oriented studies to allow their voices and perspectives to emerge. Finally, attention was paid to searching for negative instances and alternative explanations.

FINDINGS

The findings of this investigation are presented in case study form, which is organized according to the categories emerging from the data. Case study methodology provides the means for preserving the integrity of the participant's experience and constructing narratives that bring it alive (Yin, 1984). It also provides an in-depth profile of the participant, based on the research questions. In order to reveal the participant's perspectives, her own verbalizations were increasingly employed in the development of the case study.

Educational Biography

The most determinant experience for Terry's discovery of the subject matter and her subsequent choice of career was a trip to Mexico organized by her high school Spanish teacher. It opened the door for experiencing the language and the culture in a naturalistic setting, presenting a unique opportunity for first-hand experience, which was the way people learned best, according to her. Terry took three years of Spanish and

one year of French in high school. She chose to enroll in Spanish initially, "even though the French teacher was nicer and easier" because all her friends did so. Terry was not too impressed with her high school Spanish classes though. The approach was limited to "rote memorization" of "verb forms," "vocabulary" and "phrases." Students were expected to take notes of all the material introduced in class and recite it back the next class. The only resource the teacher ever used for instruction was the board. The following excerpt illustrates how Terry recalled her secondary school classes:

> *In high school we had Spanish everyday. You knew exactly that what you had to do was on the board. You would do the activities, and then the next day, you would come back, and you would go over the activities. By the end of the week, you would have a vocabulary quiz and that was it; that was the cycle. (Interview 1, 3/3/99)*

Terry's first trip abroad affected her greatly. Being in contact with the language and the culture in a natural setting enabled her to practice what she had learned in the classroom, rendering her study of the Spanish language meaningful, to the extent that it determined her choice of profession. When asked why she decided to become a foreign language teacher, Terry said:

> *It never occurred to me that this [teaching Spanish] would be something I really wanted to do for the rest of my life, but I went to Mexico for a week during spring break and after I got back, everything sort of started to make sense, and after that I was sure. I like the traveling, I like seeing what I read about, and I guess that's the way it got started. (Interview 1, 3/3/99).*

Language Coursework

Terry remembered having some good teaching assistants and professors for her language courses. However, she found the advanced language courses rather heterogeneous. There were both native and non-native speakers of Spanish enrolled in those courses. According to Terry, classes were suited to the level of the native and most advanced speakers, which left the lower proficiency-level students "clueless." She remarked that she could always follow because her level was "sort of always in the middle" range. Terry also contended that she learned more from the stricter professors, who would focus on accuracy, as opposed to those who had a less structured approach to teaching Spanish.

Study Abroad

As with her high school experience, Terry's eight-week trip abroad during college proved to be one the most significant experiences in her teacher education program. The immersion setting of the programs required Terry to use Spanish for communication and survival in the every-day basis contributing markedly to the further development of her Spanish language and cultural skills. As she put it: "As far as improving skills to me that [study abroad] was the best. The best thing was being immersed and sort of have no way out." (Interview 1, 3/3/99). Terry also took two courses during her study abroad program. However, she experienced some difficulties with one of them. It was an honors Culture and Civilization class taught by a Uruguayan professor. Terry found it quite demanding because it was above her proficiency level. In contrast, she enjoyed and benefited "much more" from the other course, Art History of Mexico, taught by the local museum curator. He incorporated a lot of the local folktale in the class and had a better "grasp on what [the students] knew and what he wanted [them] to get out the course." In retrospect, Terry wished she would have known better and gone to study abroad for a longer period of time. It was the key to her more confident knowledge of the subject matter. It enhanced her language skills greatly and provided essential cultural background for teaching. Terry also wished that the university would do a better job both at promoting study abroad and enhancing the financial assistance for this type of experience. The following excerpt captures how Terry felt about study abroad:

> *You don't learn anything until you've been to your study abroad because that's where your language increases, you are immersed in it, you learn so much more about culture and how really people act and think. (Interview 6, 7/5/99)*

Education Coursework

Except for the PDS methods course, Terry did not regard her education coursework as significant in any way. She was quite skeptical at the ability of professional education courses to prepare teacher candidates for teaching. In her view, it was the field experience itself that mattered the most when learning how to teach. As she stated,

> *They can't prepare you for this [student teaching] no matter what. It's like I wish we would have more experience in the classroom during PDS, but it's hard when you have to come in and out, you don't stay with the same class, but you can't really prepare until you are right there in front of the class and you know what works and what doesn't. (Interview 6, 7/5/99)*

Terry further held that

> *You're not really prepared until you just sort of jump in and do it. No matter how much you read and you think you know, it's totally different until you are right in front of the class. That's all it boils down to. (Interview 4, 8/4/99)*

PDS Methods Course

PDS eased Terry's transition into student teaching. It offered an avenue for laying the foundations of both her pedagogical knowledge and a productive relationship with her would-be cooperating teacher. Nevertheless, Terry was ambivalent about all the classroom observation involved in PDS. On the one hand, she thought "It was good that I got to see something different to what I learned in college and in high school: how to present, just how to run a class" (Interview 3, 24/3/99). On the other hand, Terry opined that "you [didn't] have to sit and observe that much and just sort of waste your time." (Interview 3, 24/3/99). Terry's ideal setup for PDS had method students working with experienced teachers in all aspects of the teaching endeavor. Observation seemed more meaningful to Terry once there was a framework already in place against which she could revise the decision-making and the instructional practices that took place in the classroom. It was only in retrospective that Terry could see value in observation, as the following clip from the data shows:

> *Only now, when I'm done student teaching, I really like observing other classes to see what techniques they use because I'm more familiar with all of these things. Because before, I didn't know what they were doing*

> *and it didn't really make much difference to me, but afterwards, a lot of things within PDS were probably more productive I think. (Interview 6, 7/5/99).*

Initiation into Student Teaching

"Jumping in," "trial and error," "sink and swim," "pass or fail," " a big leap" were images Terry used to depict her student teaching experience. They capture the finality Terry attached to this phase of her professional development. Consistent with her views that the professional education program could not prepare her for such experience, Terry viewed student teaching as a sort of definite test. It was the only opportunity to "study under the master" and make mistakes:

> *It really is like sink or swim. When you start you have to make up your mind. Are you gonna do this? Are you gonna give it all, or you're just gonna sink? You really have to come in with the mind set that "I'm gonna really give this my all." You do. You have to or else it's just why bother? It's just all or nothing. (Interview 6, 7/5/99).*

Terry and Mrs. Jones: A Collaborative Partnership

Mrs. Jones, the cooperating teacher, played a crucial role in Terry's growth and contributed markedly to her successful transition into teaching by providing a structure appropriate for addressing her developmental needs. Mrs. Jones was well aware that when Terry "was in high school, they didn't do a thing in Spanish class, so she didn't have a very good model as far as trying different ways of doing things" (Mrs. Jones-Interview, 7/4/99). In Terry's words hers "was a systematic kind of guidance." Her cooperating teacher "helped [her] in every step of the way" providing the guidance and room she needed to develop. Mrs. Jones assistance was reflected both during the planning and teaching process. Terry felt fortunate to have Mrs. Jones as her cooperating teacher. She knew "the ropes" and had answers for all her questions. Terry also greatly valued their partnership. The following excerpt evidences the significance that Terry attached to the role of her cooperating teacher in her learning to teach process. When asked to describe her relationship with her cooperating teacher, she said:

> *It's very good. It's very easygoing and I couldn't have asked for better supervising teacher. The cooperation that we have between each other is just perfect. She is very caring and concerned that, you know, I do my best as much as I'm concerned that I do. We really sit down and we talk about how it went, "How you think it went?" And then, we see if there's any changes that need to be made or maybe things that just need to be fine-tuned a little bit. Like every week, we sort of work on something different, and that really helps me a lot, just to keep things going. It helps me focus too. (Interview 5, 5/5/99)*

Planning Process

Terry and her cooperating teacher planned together. Particularly at the beginning of student teaching, Mrs. Jones mentored Terry very closely because she "had absolutely no experience in lesson planning." Thus, this process truly constituted a "learning experience." During the first phase of the planning stage, Mrs. Jones assisted Terry in the decision making about content, organization and progression. The following excerpt depicts the approach to lesson preparation as related by Terry at the beginning of their partnership:

> *In the beginning, we did everything together, just making sure that I knew how to do things, that's how it went, step by step. "OK, today, you need to do listening activities as well as the book" or the computer lab, or something like that. Because, I mean you don't know, they don't teach you these things in class. It's like forget all that, this is a whole new game and you need to learn these things as you go on, and that's why it took a while to get adjusted. (Interview 5, 5/5/99)*

In posing questions that activated Terry's thinking about the structure and progression of her lesson, Mrs. Jones helped her student teacher develop her pedagogical reasoning skills. As Terry grew more independent in her decision making about content and organization, Mrs. Jones' role became that of a source of ideas and fine-tuner. Terry relied on her heavily because Mrs. Jones "had all these neat ideas for class that would never occur to [her]."

Teaching process

During Terry's implementation of the lesson, Mrs. Jones acted as a careful observer, assistant, and feedback source. Because Terry taught the same class three times to different groups, Mrs. Jones made sure she observed Terry's first class. The feedback section that ensued allowed Terry to assess her performance and further refine her lesson planning. Mrs. Jones also provided her with the autonomy that she needed for growth. Mrs. Jones' philosophy regarding this issue was very clear; she viewed herself:

> *As a kind of a guide, somewhat, meaning that they can do pretty much whatever they want, if they have ideas and things. If they don't, then I'll step in and help. If they want to try something completely different that will accomplish what needs to be done, that's fine too. So I just provide a place for them to do whatever they need, to try some things they would like to try and teach. If I need to be more of a specific guide, I'll do that for them. (Mrs. Jones-Interview, 7/4/99)*

As Terry's planning and teaching became more routine, Mrs. Jones' presence in the classroom decreased, allowing Terry to claim as much space and ownership of the classroom as she was able to take.

Beliefs about Foreign Language teaching and Learning

Terry's beliefs about learning and teaching languages were forged mostly by practice. Her previous experiences as a language learner and her exposure to foreign language classrooms during PDS were the main sources informing her beliefs about how foreign languages are taught and learned. Terry maintained that people learned languages differently. Some did it through immersion. Others "just had a natural ability to learn a foreign language." For some others, particularly in the classroom context, it involved a lot of rote memorization and hard work. She believed in the value of memorization for laying the foundations of grammar and constant repetition for preventing the loss of the content already learned. In Terry's view, the language learning process was likely to "be boring and slow," but with dedication, hard work, patience, and enthusiasm a "whole new world of literature, and history, and culture" would eventually open.

Contrasting with the previous set of beliefs derived mainly from her schooling experiences were her emerging beliefs resulting from both her study abroad experience and her exposure to Morrison foreign language classrooms. Her previous schooling experiences had exposed her to a rather limited range of practices, which emphasized rote memorization of grammar and vocabulary. On the contrary, her exposure to Morrison foreign language classrooms had shown her a wide variety of teaching practices. The main premises of her new set of beliefs were that students learned best through experience and that in the foreign language classroom this was accomplished by incorporating all the senses as well as students' interests. In other words, engaging the five senses and making it relevant to students was the path to learning. As Terry explained:

> *You always have to have a different approach to things because sometimes not every student learns by seeing something visually, for example. Or they don't always understand something from the audiotapes or something. I think you have to use all senses. You have to incorporate their lives and make it relevant to them, as far as a keeping things in perspective, so they can learn. (Interview 2, 16/3/99)*

Variety was crucial for student learning in Terry's emerging conceptions. It was a powerful motivating factor that could intrinsically lead to learning; in other words, variety per se was key for learning. She was also discovering the importance of employing activities geared to facilitating interaction among students. The value Terry placed on an interactive approach rested more on the collaborative effort it represented than on the opportunities it offered for maximizing students' use of the target language. Illustrating these views are the two excerpts below:

> *You have to have variety. You just can't come in, present your grammar, and do the activities and the homework. You really need the variety. I think the more variety you have to keep things*

> *moving and interesting, the more they are gonna learn and absorb. (Interview 4, 8/4/99)*

Terry further held that

> *Just that you can't go in and lecture. There has to be interaction, hands-on, anything hands-on. I never really realized the importance of group work and I think that's really, really a big factor in foreign languages. Sometimes, a student doesn't have enough confidence to ask the question but when they work in pairs they find that their partners aren't as sure and they aren't either, then they can ask the question and get results. Yeah, it's hard, it's very difficult but it's very rewarding. (Interview 3, 24/3/99)*

A change that Terry perceived in her belief system as a result of her field experience referred to the use of the target language. Terry entered student teaching with the intention of using Spanish constantly in the classroom. However, due to student response, she soon started questioning the viability of this practice. Because learners were not accustomed to a constant target language use in the classroom, it was very difficult for a newcomer, particularly a student teacher, to change this attitude.

Learning How to Represent and Present the Subject matter

The process of learning how to turn subject matter into instruction to present it to students was a laborious one for Terry. As discussed above, none of her prior professional education coursework dealt with this complex dimension of the teaching endeavor. Additionally, because she had no previous effective models to fall back on, she had to rely almost entirely on her cooperating teacher to guide her through this process. For her, knowing the subject matter and presenting it in ways meaningful to the students were two different things. The effective teacher was not necessarily the most cognizant of her/his subject matter but the one able to "present the subject matter well" and "get the point across." Terry found herself investing a sheer amount of time and effort in the thinking involved in representation and presentation. Presenting required skills as a mediator between the teaching materials and the learners to make the content meaningful. When asked what the most challenging aspect of teaching a foreign language was, Terry had difficulty clearly articulating her views as the excerpt below shows:

> *I think it's mostly the way to present it, how you present it. It goes back to the communication. I know how it is. I know what's right and what's wrong, but you have to say in a certain way that it makes sense to the students, so they see how you do this. It's like a procedure, you know. Step one, the mood, the ending of the verb to conjugate. You know, you have to say the right words in order for them to make sense. That's hard to do. How do you present this to make it so that they will understand. You can't just say "here is the verb with the forms." It doesn't work like that. You have to present it (...) How to do this? It's taken a while but I feel like I'm doing better with that. (Interview 4, 8/4/99)*

Another difficulty Terry encountered in the preparation for teaching was planning to last for the entire ninety-minute class, particularly at the beginning of student teaching. On occasion, she found herself having to come up with activities on the spot to fill in extra time left at the end of the period. Other than that, Terry reported that she followed her plan closely. She was not confident enough yet to make decisions in action. Terry's explanations of the grammar points were generally clear and accurate. Although sometimes students appeared confused, Terry was able to answer their questions in an acceptable manner.

Developing a Teaching Approach

Terry fashioned her Spanish language teaching approach after her cooperating teacher to a great extent. She considered Mrs. Jones an "excellent teacher," liked her style, and "tried to emulate her a lot," particularly "in the beginning." She found Mrs. Jones' arrangement of the classroom, in a semi-circle, quite appealing and appropriate for foreign language classes. It not only made the classroom "much more like a friendly environment" but it was also "more open for communication." As Mrs. Jones, Terry did not "stay in the podium and lecture" but circulated among the learners, monitoring and assisting them. Terry sought to develop an approach that was also consistent with her beliefs. This approach combined the teaching of grammar with an emphasis on repetition and the appeal to students' sensorial systems. She increasingly strove to incorporate tasks that engaged learners' auditory, visual, tactile, and tasting senses. The appeal to the students' senses was particularly apparent in the teaching of culture, an essential dimension of Terry's approach to teaching Spanish. Although Terry made use of the activities provided by the textbook that emphasized cultural factual knowledge, she favored the use of activities that could bring the culture alive to students. As a result, in Terry's classroom, students listened to Spanish language music, ate Mexican recipes prepared by themselves, watched commercially produced and home-made videos about different aspects of the Mexican culture, made piñatas, and went on field-trips to Mexican stores. Her trademark was to play contemporary Spanish language music, which kids seemed to enjoy, while waiting for the bell. Terry also advocated cross-cultural comparisons between the American and target language cultures. Her favored strategy was drawing on her own, or others, personal experiences with the culture. In Terry's words "it makes the world of a difference when you can compare and contrast" both cultures via first-hand accounts or home-made videos from her trips to Mexico. The presence of native Spanish-speaking students in Terry's classroom facilitated considerably her developing approach to teaching culture. They represented a great resource both as language consultants and as culture insiders and informants.

Language Use in the Classroom

Terry entered student teaching with the intent of using the target language increasingly in the classroom. However, she found difficult to follow suit. According to her, it was necessary to use the target language in the classroom "from day one" because if you used "a lot of English from the start, that's what they [students] were gonna want for the rest of the year." This apparently was the case in the classes Terry taught. Students were not exposed to a great deal of Spanish use; therefore, "they just stop[ped] listening" and claimed that they did not understand Terry's input.

In Terry's classroom the target language was used primarily for modeling and practicing the teaching activities, for giving simple instructions, and for praising students. She also employed Spanish during brief exchanges with the native speakers enrolled in her class. Terry resorted to English for presenting and explaining grammatical points, for giving complex instructions, and for other administrative matters. She estimated that she used the target language approximately 50% percent of the time. The main strategies used by Terry to make her input comprehensible to students were verbal linguistic and included paraphrasing in English, direct translation, and code-switching.

In attempting to depict the strategies she used for making her input comprehensible to learners, Terry explained

> *What I do a lot, it's I'll say the question twice, one time in English, one time in Spanish; and the page numbers, one time in English, one time in Spanish. Open your book one time in Spanish, one time in English. Just so much repetition, over and over. You know, this is what you have to do. (Stimulus recall 1, 9/4/99)*

In Terry's mind, it was the repetition that accomplished the goal of making Spanish comprehensible for learners. She seemed unaware that it could be precisely the technique she was using that prevented learners from making efforts to understand the input. To a lesser extent, Terry made use of visual strategies to support her rendering of meaning. They included making diagrams or drawings on the board, pointing to objects when naming them, and mimicking actions. Terry contended that acting skills helped considerably in the foreign language classroom in the pursuit of making meaning.

Both Terry and Prof. Lensky, her supervisor from the university, viewed the greater use of Spanish language in the classroom as one dimension on which Terry needed to work on more. Consequently, she made incrementing the use of Spanish in the classroom a pressing goal and directed her efforts toward that end. It was necessary to do it even at the expense of learners' understanding. Terry's growing concern with this issue was captured in our fourth interview:

> *You have to speak Spanish with them even if they don't understand. They have to hear it. I mean, that's just the thing.*

> *That's what I want to do, more target language, more target language. That's the thing I want to work harder on. And that's to me what it's all about, the target language. It's... you have to do this. That's your goal, as far as anything else is concerned. (Interview 4, 8/4/99)*

Terry's firm objective of increasing the use of the target language was put into action. As the end of her student teaching term drew near, she tried to enhance her use of Spanish in the classroom. She attributed learners' growing comprehension skills to their increasing knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical structures as well as their being more accustomed to her manner of speaking. Although Terry employed a number of activities aimed at maximizing student talking time, she tended to emphasize the practice of teacher-controlled activities. Instances observed that made allowance for student language use included role-plays, information gathering activities, and pair activities.

Attention to Students

At the beginning of her student teaching experience, Terry viewed herself mainly in the role of subject-matter specialist. However, as the term unfolded, her views were influenced by those of her cooperating teacher, who adhered to a student-centered philosophy. Considerations about the centrality of the students began to emerge in Terry's mind. When asked what was a rewarding aspect of learning to teach, Terry readily replied:

> *When they [students] get excited about something; when they ask questions, that's what I like. And when they come down and they just talk and you learn about them. It's just. . . .They're just great. I mean, I always thought it was kind of the opposite. I didn't really go into teaching because I liked the kids. I sort of liked my content area more, but now I see some of these kids are just fabulous people and that's what it's all about. (Interview 2, 16/3/99)*

However, getting to know students and addressing their needs was not an easy endeavor for an inexperienced teacher. Pressed by all the exigencies of her student teaching role, Terry found herself drawn in time-consuming preparation tasks that left very little time for anything else. Only when she gained more confidence and experience was she able to shift some of her attention away from her pressing demands and began focusing more on learners. Defining the nature of the relationship she wanted to develop with them became a great concern. Terry did not want to be conceived neither as "friend" nor as a "warden." For her, it was important to gain students' respect and to "get along with them" in order to create a "good working atmosphere" in the classroom. Additionally, Terry was mindful that learning about students' interests and concerns was essential for making the subject-matter content relevant to them. Thus, Terry tried to build rapport with students by showing interest in their lives. She made a routine of always being in the room well before the class started and engaged in informal conversations with students. Similarly, while students were getting ready to leave at the end of the class period, Terry asked them about their plans for the night or the weekend. For Terry building a relationship with students was a two-way endeavor. As a result, it was not unusual to hear her sharing insights about her own life with students. "I talk about like my own personal experiences, the more things I would say, the more open they would become and it really...It helped create a nice atmosphere" (Interview 6, 7/5/99). Toward the end, in reflecting about the evolution of her relationship with students, Terry recognized that it was an important dimension of her development of her teaching persona, but still a work in progress:

> *By the end, it was really working well. I mean I had the lesson plans down; I was teaching. Now, it seems like at the end, I was working on how you get along with these kids day in and day out. It's hard, you know, because you don't want to become their friend; but yet, you're not the warden at the same time. That was something that I really wanted, to make sure that I knew my students, that I knew the things they like, that they are in love, because that's important to them and whenever I can incorporate something that they like into whatever we were doing, that was*

> ***for the better, I thought. I'm still working on that. (Interview 6, 7/5/99).***

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Terry moved laboriously through her student teaching phases. As with many student teachers in the teacher learning literature, she found herself overwhelmed with the complexity and the demands of learning to teach and felt utterly unprepared for such an endeavor. With a committed determination and the caring guidance of her cooperating teacher, Terry was able to move forward and experience genuine growth. She left student teaching with a sense of relief of having culminated this painstaking rite of passage but also with satisfaction of having invested herself completely. Most importantly, she left with the understanding that student teaching was just the beginning of a learning process that had only laid the foundations on which she could continue building the blocks of her professional development.

Terry's experiences in naturalistic settings proved the most determinant influences in the development of her subject-matter knowledge. Her first trip abroad as a high school student opened a door that greatly affected her conception of the Spanish language. It rendered meaningful the set of structures memorized in the classroom setting and gave her insights into the world of one of the cultures where the language is spoken. Study abroad enhanced Terry's language skills and cultural knowledge to a greater degree than her language courses could have ever done. Although Terry's command of Spanish was not superior yet, she communicated effectively. She also had a good working knowledge of the Spanish grammar, which was apparent in her ability to explain the structure of the language accurately and clearly to learners. This finding raises questions about the ability of language coursework to provide prospective language teachers with an adequate proficiency level and cultural competence for effective teaching (Lafayette, 1993; Schulz, 2000).

The finding strongly supports the calls for rethinking the traditional model of college language instruction that either places the burden of language acquisition in the first two years or assumes that study abroad will ensure the achievement of the language proficiency level required for effective teaching (Huebner, 1995; Lafayette, 1993). What happens then with all the language teacher candidates that cannot or choose not to go to study abroad? The guidelines of the Program Standards for Foreign Language Teaching Preparation, which increase the desired language proficiency level of prospective teachers to Superior, place further pressure on foreign language departments to re-examine both their curricular structure and content and their practices in order to guarantee the development of higher proficiency levels. For Schulz (2000, p. 518) the number of teachers entering the profession with limited language skills and little cultural competence is "the single most important obstacle to effective FL education in the United States."

Terry's professional coursework did not provide her with a significant theoretical background to bring into student teaching. In her view, with the exception of PDS, her professional education was irrelevant and could not prepare her for the realities of the classroom. This lends support to previous findings about the negligible impact of the professional education coursework on the development of prospective teachers (see Johnson, 1994; Kagan, 1992; Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998). It also underlines the need to reconcptualize language teacher education programs so that they can provide prospective teachers with both the pertinent theoretical underpinnings of the profession and the analytical skills that would enable them to bridge the gap between theory and practice (Freeman & Richards, 1996)). Teacher education programs also need to afford prospective teachers with increasing opportunities to develop their reflective skills so that they can critically examine the beliefs they bring to their education programs in the light of theory and best practices and thus become more self-aware (Richards, 1998).

Terry's indication that the PDS methods course served as a springboard that provided for a smoother transition into student teaching highlights the importance of effective and appropriate PDS or other clinical experiences prior to student teaching. Well-devised field experiences must afford prospective teachers with numerous and varied opportunities to work collaboratively with master teachers and get exposure to best practices well before they have to student teach. Field experiences should also give prospective teachers opportunities to put theory into practice, to acquire knowledge about schools and schooling, and to start developing both their own theories and their pedagogical content knowledge (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2002).

Terry viewed student teaching as the crux of her professional teacher preparation and thus assumed her assignment duties with dogged determination. Without access to either a theoretical framework or effective teaching models to inform her teaching, Terry embraced the model provided by her cooperating teacher, who turned out to be the most significant influence in Terry's development of her general and content pedagogical knowledge. Turning subject matter into content for teaching represented one of the most challenging and time-consuming tasks of learning how to teach for Terry. Roskos (1996, p.120) purports that "making a lesson plan marks an important shift from thinking like a student to thinking like a teacher." Mrs. Jones assisted Terry in this learning experience by engaging her in a systematic process that helped her focus on the decision-making required by planning and the thinking behind it. Mrs. Jones also acted as a careful observer of Terry's teaching providing the timely and constructive feedback needed for growth.

The ability of cooperating teachers to profoundly affect the student teaching experience has been addressed by several researchers (see Agee, 1996; Knowles & Cole, 1994; Sudzina, Giebelhaus & Coolican, 1997). Cooperating teachers that both define their roles in terms of their student teachers' developmental needs and are committed to their success become central actors in the learning-to-teach experience. It is the responsibility of language teacher educators to identify effective cooperating teachers and to create and nurture the kind of collaborative partnerships that would ensure truly illuminating and empowering learning experiences for prospective teachers (Johnson, 2002).

Terry's belief system about teaching and learning a foreign language was shaped by experiential practice. Her prior experiences as a learner, her experience at Morrison High School, and the mentoring relationship with her cooperating teacher were the main sources informing her conceptions about teaching. Terry did not view any of her previous teachers as role models after she could fashion her emerging practice and consciously sought to overcome the influence of the apprenticeship of observation in order to build a satisfactory image of herself as a teacher. The approach to teaching Spanish that Terry sought to develop was heavily influenced by her cooperating teacher and emphasized learning through the engagement of all senses and making the study of language relevant to students by addressing their interests. She progressively realized the importance of pair work and group work in the foreign language classroom and tried to move away from her initial emphasis on teacher-controlled activities.

Terry also understood the importance of including culture and made use of a myriad of resources available to her to bring alive to her students different aspects related to the Spanish speaking culture. Although Terry believed in using the target language as a vehicle for teaching and communication in the classroom, she found difficult to put this belief into action. Terry exhibited a limited array of strategies for making her input comprehensible and became discouraged when learners claimed they did not understand her. The use of a wide range of linguistic and nonlinguistic strategies for making input meaningful to students is considered necessary to foster a communicative environment in the foreign language classroom and thus a skill prospective language teachers need to develop (Lee & VanPatten, 1995). It is also desirable to have clear parameters that can enable prospective teachers to make informed decisions about appropriate L1/L2 use in the classroom (Macaro, 2001).

Even though there were mismatches between Terry's emerging conceptions of her teaching self and what she was able to accomplish in the classroom, Terry was able to provide a coherent account of her teaching practice and develop a clearer image of the teacher she wanted to become. Bullough (1991) remarks the importance of having clear self-images for growth to occur. According to the author prospective teachers enter the classroom attempting to validate their self-images. As their knowledge of classrooms and learners increase and the right conditions are present, as they were in Terry's case, they start to modify and reconstruct their self-images.

CONCLUSION

This case study took a broad look at the learning-to-teach experience of a Spanish prospective teacher as viewed through her eyes. The highly situated nature of teacher learning should be taken into account when interpreting the findings of this study.

In other words, the particular contexts and times where learning to teach takes place coupled with the background prospective teachers bring with themselves profoundly shape their learning-to-teach experience (Johnson, 2002). In Terry's case, the interplay of several biographical, personal, cognitive, educational, and contextual factors forged her initiation and socialization into the foreign language teaching profession.

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APPENDIX

Sample of Participant's Interview Protocol

1. What is the source of your ideas about language teaching?
2. How are you developing as a language teacher?
3. What are your strengths as a language teacher?
4. What are your limitations at present?
5. What do you think you need to improve on?
6. Are there any contradictions in your teaching?
7. Tell me a positive teaching experience that you have had?
8. Tell me a negative teaching experience that you have had (Try to come to an understanding about the origins of your thinking about the experience)
9. What is the most difficult idea, position or concept about teaching a foreign language you have encountered so far?
10. What satisfactions do language teaching give you?
11. What is the most valuable thing about language teaching that you have learned so fa
12. Previous ideas or beliefs that have been challenged or changed as a result of your experiences in the school and classroom
13. Previous ideas that have been reinforced as a result of these new field of experienc
14. What are the characteristics of an effective foreign language teacher?
15. How can the technology available at Morrison can be used to facilitate foreign langua learning?
16. What are your concerns about addressing issues of student diversity?
17. How does your continued work (PDS and student teaching) at Morrison has influenc your approach to teaching foreign languages?

Interview questions adapted from the following sources:

Richards, J.C., & Lockhart, C. (1996). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

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THIS SECTION OF THE JOURNAL IS DEVOTED TO SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASSROOM PRACTICE AND PROGRAM PLANNING.

DIALOGIC CONSTRUCTION AND REFLECTIVE PRACTICE: A TEACHER EDUCATOR'S ACTION RESEARCH STUDY OF TEACHER AS LEARNER

MARJORIE HALEY, George Mason University, Fairfax, VA.
SABRINA WESLEY-NERO George Mason University, VA

> *An empowered teacher is a reflective decision maker who finds joy in learning and in investigating the teaching/learning process – one who views learning as construction and teaching as a facilitating process to enhance and enrich development (Fosnot, 1989).*

In 1987 Donald Schon introduced the concept of reflective practice. Since then many schools, colleges, and departments of education have begun designing teacher education and professional development programs based on this concept. This paper reports on an action research study on the use of reflective practice by a teacher educator. It highlights how the teacher educator co-constructed knowledge with a doctoral student within reflective environments, examining teaching practices, and analyzed dialogic perspectives. Using journals as a primary means of reflection allowed the teacher educator to determine her own focus and what she wanted to understand. The primary goal of this study was to investigate the effects of self-reflection on the teacher educator as learner. At issue were (a) recursive versus linear curriculum, and (b) elementary versus secondary experiential backgrounds. The secondary goal was to examine the results of teaching the same or similar material in multiple ways and how such variation has an impact on different learners. The results indicated that both teachers (pre and in-service) and the teacher educator gained. The primary benefit for the teacher educator was a deeper understanding of her own teaching style and ultimately, greater effectiveness as an educator. The teachers rated the course highly,

remarking that they felt extremely well prepared to teach in today's foreign/second language classrooms.

INTRODUCTION

Teacher as learner offers insights into teacher education practices. This notion suggests that by adhering to theoretical underpinnings of the construction of knowledge, the exactness of reflectivity can be an important dimension in professional development. Like all learners, teachers need internal frameworks that allow them to exert metacognitive control over reflections concerning the complex interactions of classroom variables (Moss, 1997). As teacher educators, we must recognize that we are not the sole proprietors of or over the process of learning to teach (Johnson, 2002). One of our goals as teacher educators is to work at developing a rich understanding and shared way of knowing and doing. A clear need exists for research-based models of reflective professional development. The goal of professional development should be self-regulated teachers who employ a rich and developed professional language to filter reflections about their thinking, understanding and practice (Moss, 1997). The quality of a teacher's reflections and actions depends on a developmental ability to integrate concrete teaching experiences, models, and strategies of others, and principles of research in teaching into an integrated whole.

Current educational reform movements demand increased student achievement in America's public schools and decry the lack of quality teachers. Underlying these movements is the assumption that the preparation and performance of teachers influence student achievement. It may even be argued that quality teachers produce high quality students. Suggestions for improving teacher quality include the restructuring of teacher education, and the creation of a set of national teacher certification standards and a national certification organization. As teachers and teacher educators, we have first hand knowledge of how a well-prepared teacher can have a positive impact on a child's life forever. Along with other colleges and universities, at George Mason University, we endeavor to develop teachers who are prepared to co-construct knowledge with their students. This paper addresses how one teacher educator engaged in self-reflection in order to examine her own practices, construction of knowledge, and dialogic perspectives.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK– INCORPORATING REFLECTION INTO PRACTICE

It is argued that the dominant mode of teacher education still focuses on staff development that is formal in nature, unconnected to classroom life, and pays little attention to the metaphor of the teacher as a learner (Darling-Hammond, 1996; Guskey & Huberman, 1995; Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992; Lieberman, 1995). The current literature supports the argument that professional learning should endeavor to understand how meanings are constructed and interpreted by the individual and how metacognition can assist the teacher to develop powerful inner language to guide continuous self-improvement (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Fenstermacher, 1988; Gallimore, Dalton, & Tharp, 1986; Lieberman, 1995; Manning & Payne, 1993; McKibbin, 1978-1979; Neely, 1986; Payne & Manning, 1988; Ross, 1989; Simmons, Sparks, Starko, Pasch, Coltob, & Grinberg, 1989; Szykula & Hector, 1978; Sparks-Langer & Colton, 1991). Teacher educators must understand how teachers learn to teach and how they carry out their work. Teacher education, in essence, is the formal label we give to our response to this learning process. It describes what we do to develop professional knowledge among teachers, and it defines how we create professionals in our field (Johnson, 2002). While the above literature cites a broad range of research and thought on the topic of reflective practice and teacher as learner, very little has been written about teacher educator as learner. This fact notwithstanding, merits the importance of this study.

Licklider's review of adult learning theory (1997) stated that self-directedness – including self-learning from experience in natural settings – is an important component of adult learning. Therefore, effective teacher professional development should involved more than occasional large group sessions; it should include activities such as study teams and peer coaching in which teachers continuously examine their assumptions and practices (Ferraro, 2000).

FOREIGN/SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

The secondary goal was to examine the results of teaching same/similar material in multiple ways and how that impacts different learners. The results of the mid-semester and end of course evaluations clearly indicate that teachers, pre and in-service enjoyed being taught via a recursive curricula. There were no indications of displeasure from any of them and one noted a particular appreciation for K-W-L chart in which one could go back and focus on what had been learned.

PROFESSOR'S COURSE SELF-EVALUATION

Recent census data suggest that more Americans today are foreign-born than in any previous time in our country's history. In addition, across the nation 20% of school- age children across the nation live in homes where languages other than English are spoken. Not only are we seeing unprecedented numbers of English language learners (ELLs) in our schools, many native English-speaking children are learning a second language in school. At George Mason University we graduate approximately 50 language educators per year, these include both foreign language and English as a Second Language (ESL). One of the seven required courses in the foreign language PK-12 licensure program is "Advanced methods of teaching Foreign/Second Languages in PK-12 Schools" (See Appendix A). This course is designed to equip pre-service and in-service teachers with tools needed to facilitate contextualized and content-based language learning. Further, the course is intended to blend theoretical knowledge and practical application in an interactive format that will give both pre-service and in-service teachers the background information and tools needed to enhance classroom teaching. In the fall of 2000, two instructors co-taught this course. One is associate professor, teacher educator, and former foreign language teacher at secondary levels – grades 7-12. The other is a doctoral candidate in multilingual/multicultural education and a former elementary Spanish immersion teacher. In this course emphasis was placed on the delivery of instruction in a way that maximized the strengths associated with the background experiences, knowledge base, and interests of each instructor. In addition, co-teaching provided the doctoral candidate with a supervised entry into the field of higher education teacher preparation and the support of a collaborative professional development relationship. Since this course was previously designed and taught by the professor, the course syllabus was already in place. Therefore, the doctoral student didn't have input in the creation of the syllabus, though she fully shared in the weekly planning for each class session.

The instructors recognized the students as active participants and partners in the construction of knowledge. They valued and built upon the students' prior knowledge. The instructors saw themselves as co-constructors of knowledge and recognized the value of each one's experiential backgrounds. This not only allowed them to design and deliver a course that contained constructivist principles and activities, they were also able to model constructivist teaching and learning. Smith (2001) asserts that modeling and participation in constructivist teaching and learning are key elements in the successful preparation of pre-service teachers.

THE ACTION RESEARCH STUDY: REFLECTIVE PRACTICE AND TEACHER EDUCATOR AS LEARNER

Since this co-teaching experience was part of the doctoral student's internship, we needed to decide upon a final project - something that would and show evidence of what had been gained from this experience. Throughout the 15-week semester we frequently talked about how nice it was to meld our previous teaching experiences – the doctoral student coming from an elementary background and the teacher educator from a secondary background. In those discussions we also realized that the content of the course was based mostly on secondary education. Therefore, we agreed that the doctoral student would re-design the advanced methods course for the following semester, adding concepts and perspectives from elementary education, and the professor would teach the course accordingly. Re-designing the course meant selecting texts and creating course content, assessments, and rubrics. The primary differences in the design of the course were (a) the inclusion of spiraling, i.e., recursive versus linear curriculum; and b) increased emphasis on elementary foreign/second language teaching (doctoral student) versus secondary foreign/second language teaching (teacher educator) backgrounds.

Based on the two goals of the study, to investigate the effects of self-reflection on the teacher educator as learner; and to examine the results of teaching the same or similar material in multiple ways and how such variation has an impact on different learners, the teacher educator asked the following questions:

1. How did my teaching and research allow me to reflect on and inform my pedagogy?
2. What worked for me in this new course design as I continued to prepare teachers?
3. What decisions did I have to make?
4. What was my thinking process?

REDESIGNED COURSE

In the spring 2001 semester the doctoral student redesigned the advanced methods of teaching foreign/second languages in PK-12 schools course (See Appendix B) based on the following key concepts:

1. Language learning is not limited by age

As the doctoral student set out to design the course, several assumptions were evident, reflecting her professional experiences as an elementary teacher in content-based language learning programs:

A. Learning takes place best when information is spiraled as continuous strands revisited throughout various themes not when topics are isolated, taught, assessed, and discarded.

B. Active participation and hands-on experience enhance learning. One part of this course is field-experience at both the K-6 and 7-12 levels. The teachers observe and teach in actual classrooms for language learners. In addition the prospective teachers are required to do teaching simulations in class that demonstrate the application of key course objectives.

C. Students learn from each other as well as from the instruction delivered by the teacher.

When the professor and the doctoral student co-taught the course the previous semester, the doctoral student seized a learning opportunity that afforded her the experience of working side-by-side with twenty-five year veteran professor.

When the professor agreed to teach the course as redesigned by the doctoral student, she, too, embraced a new learning experience. Throughout the semester, the professor wrote weekly electronic journals, sent e-mail messages to the doctoral student, reflected on the challenges, successes, failures, surprises, concerns, and questions that she (the professor) and the students had about the course. One journal entry read:

> *The group is very anxious to talk and share their ideas/views/experiences. Getting them to share is quite easy and yet they are receptive to new information. (Journal entry, week #1)*

As an assignment I had asked them to do their own case study in which they identified a student with a behavior difficulty and then explore different ways to resolve this issues. The four in-service teachers picked actual students and the one pre-service teacher selected a student whom she actually taught during one of her subbing days. They came up with very interesting stories to recount and had very practical and meaningful solutions. Again, the sharing was rich and they 'fed off each other' and seemed to really appreciate the input from their colleagues." (Journal entry, week #11)

2. Key concepts in language learning and teaching must be integrated throughout all aspects of the course.

The curricular foundation of the course is based on four themes:

i. Effective language learning is contextualized or content-based

ii. Research and theory as they relate to practice form the basis of teaching, learning, and assessment

iii. Integrating technology can play an important role in enhancing language teaching and learning

IV. Teachers addressing the needs of diverse learners is essential to student success

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These themes are reflected in the current literature on foreign/second language education. However, they also illustrate the current reality of teaching in today's schools besieged by a paucity of teachers, populated with culturally, linguistically, and cognitively diverse students, teachers trying to keep up with the rapid pace of a global information highway.

The course key concepts were integrated throughout each of the course sub-units, creating a spiraling course curriculum. This allowed the teachers to examine the application of key concepts to varying aspects of teaching and learning from differing perspectives. For example, the use of technology throughout language learning and teaching is a key course concept. Instead of having a sub-unit on how to use technology in the language-learning classroom, the use of technology is examined throughout the study of planning, instruction and assessment. Addressing the needs of diverse learners, another key course concept, also is examined throughout the course through the lenses of planning, instruction, and assessment.

3. ***Teachers should become life-long learners who take ownership for their own continual intellectual and professional growth.***

This course included two elements that encourage the development of ownership of continual learning in its teachers. Throughout the semester the teachers complete a graphic organizer called a KWL chart. In the chart, teachers record what they know about each theme (in the column labeled "K") and what they want to know about each theme (in the column labeled "W") prior to the study of the theme. At the end of the study of a theme, teachers completed the column labeled "L" by recording what they learned during the study of that theme. Post-course discussions with the teachers revealed multiple benefits of using this graphic organizer. Many teachers remarked how their notations in the "W" column helped them to organize questions prior to reading course materials or engaging in class discussions and activities. The teachers came to class with questions relevant to their professional development and eager to engage their professor and classmates. In addition, the "L" column allowed many of the teachers to do intermittent summaries of what they learned throughout the course. This helped the teachers avoid feeling overwhelmed with information and gave them a structure of regularly reflecting on what they were gaining from the course.

Another element of the course that promoted ownership of professional and intellectual development was the teachers' action research projects. I noted in my journal:

> *With the size of the class remaining at 5, and 4 students are in-service teachers, it has afforded the opportunity to allow teachers to engage in either inquiry or action research projects as part of their field experience. I introduced the project this week and asked each of them to identify a puzzlement that they would like to investigate. (Journal entry, week # 2)*

IMPLEMENTATION CHALLENGES

The course married the instructional framework of an elementary teacher practiced in the area of teaching language through content with that of a secondary teacher experienced in teaching multiple languages and in training teachers. The implementation of a course designed by the doctoral student was not without its challenges and revisions.

ANALYSIS

Throughout the 15-week long semester the teacher educator wrote and reflected in her weekly journals, always being mindful of how her teaching and research informed her pedagogy. The reflective journals were free-flowing discourse and did not include rubrics that measured responses. The doctoral candidate would respond or react to the professor's weekly journal entries. At the end of the semester, several findings were identified.

The first finding dealt with teacher educators as learners who construct knowledge as meaning similar to teachers as learners. The teacher educator as researcher and role model encouraged teachers to put theories they had learned into practice in their classrooms. Effective practice is linked to inquiry, reflection, and continuous professional growth.

The second finding was that the spiraling course content required the teacher educator to be a risk-taker. The advanced methods course was redesigned with a spiral approach, requiring the teacher educator to self-analyze and critically reflect on her preferred teaching style. Reflective practice was a beneficial process in further enhancing professional development for the teacher educator. Other specific benefits noted in current literature include the validation of a teacher's ideals, beneficial challenges to tradition, the recognition of teaching as artistry, and respect for diversity in applying theory to classroom practice (Ferraro, 2000).

TEACHER EDUCATOR'S QUESTIONS ANSWERED

1. *How did my teaching and research allow me to reflect and inform my pedagogy?*

I rediscovered that change is multidimensional and involves skills, practice, and theory. Change must be of value to be meaningful. I had to routinely enact theories of teaching and learning within the contexts of my classroom. I wrote:

> *The students are anxious to share their progress on the KWL charts with me. It suddenly occurred to me the one adjustment I may want to consider is to have students send me the "W" – what I want to know – before we start each of them. That way I can tailor my planning to accommodate (where possible) those foci. (Journal entry, week 3)*

2. *What worked for me in this new course design as I continue to prepare teachers?*

I continued to Practice reflective inquiry. This better enabled me to build understanding by writing about what is learned. Ultimately, this provided linking understanding with classroom practice. I wrote:

> *For the most part I'm satisfied with the flow of the class and I feel that the students are benefiting. I'm not entirely sure that I'm 'spiraling' the knowledge base though. That continues to be a concern for me. I worry that what I may consider 'recycling' may be considered redundant (over kill) by the students. So we'll see. Week # 11.*

3. *What decisions did I have to make?*

I was willing to question my own assumptions so as to uncover what I know and believe and why I teach the way I do. I had to acknowledge who my students were, where they come from and what they needed to know. In my self-reflections, I was able to ask the broader questions of not just whether my practices work, but for whom, in what ways, and why.

4. *What was my thinking process?"*

My thinking process involved being a risk-taker and stepping outside of my comfort zone to move from being a traditional behaviorist to a constructivist. As I journaled, I frequently commented on my concern about the recursive curricula. In the end though, the teachers were quite pleased with the course content and delivery and this was demonstrated in both the mid-semester and final course evaluations. My journal entry read:

> *I wrestle with the 'spiral' approach to going back and recycling topics/themes previously covered, i.e., treating them as though they were new. I'm resisting this for some reason, but I'm trying to follow the course outline. (Journal entry, week 7)*

The primary goal of the study was to investigate the effects of self-reflection on the teacher educator as learner. She discovered that she is a reflective decision maker who enjoyed investigating the teacher as learner process. A rediscovery for her was learning is a construction and teaching is a facilitating process that both enhance and enrich development.

In addition to reviewing the weekly journals compiled throughout the semester, the teacher educator completed an end-of-course self-evaluation (See Appendix C). The results indicated that the teacher educator continued to be reflective about her practice, allowing for asking the broader questions, and willingness to challenge herself to a more constructivist design of teaching the course.

CONCLUSION

Teacher learning is clearly a reflective process, and, therefore, teacher education must provide opportunities for teacher learners to engage in honest, open, deliberative reflection and critical inquiry into their own experiences and their own teaching practices (Johnson, 2002). The redesign and delivery of a graduate methods course on teaching foreign/second languages in PK-12 schools resulted in increased learning and development for the doctoral student, the teacher educator, and the students alike. The doctoral student who redesigned the course benefited from the experience of designing a graduate level teacher preparation course under the watchful care of an experience teacher educator. In addition, the professor then implemented the course. This allowed the doctoral student to see her course through eyes well beyond her current position, the eyes of an accomplished teacher educator. The students enrolled in the course received the best of both worlds, the perspectives of an elementary and a secondary language teacher, the ideas of a novice and seasoned teacher educator, and the fruit of a mutually beneficial professional collaboration. The teacher educator is a reflective decision maker who enjoyed investigating the teacher/learner process. She rediscovered learning as construction and teaching as a facilitating process to enhance and enrich professional development.

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APPENDIX A Original Syllabus

Original Syllabus for EDCI 684

Course Description: This course is designed to blend theoretical knowledge and practical application in an interactive format that will give both pre-service and in-service teachers the background information and tools needed to improve classroom teaching. Advanced study of second language pedagogy and teaching trends will be stressed. Topics will include emphasis on integrating the ACTFL Standards, use of multimedia and other computer assisted language learning strategies, teaching diverse student populations, effective use of block scheduling, alternative forms of assessment, use of portfolios, textbook evaluation, and multiple learner styles. Teaching strategies used are interactive, lecture with discussion, small group, video, and student-generated.

Course Objectives: Students completing EDCI 684 will be able to...

- Develop a personal/professional rationale for teaching another language.
- Demonstrate ability to use a wide array of teaching methods.

- Design creative and effective units that utilize a block scheduling format.
- Construct an evaluative rubric after reviewing and analyzing textbooks for content, purpose, and usefulness.
- Create multiple forms of assessment, to include portfolio.
- Examine and evaluate recent developments in new technologies that are applicable to foreign language instruction.
- Practice creating interactive learning strategies for implementing the ACTFL Standards.
- Construct a pedagogical framework to establish a clear connection among teaching, learning, and assessment.

COURSE SCHEDULE

THEME A: CURRENT TEACHING TRENDS IN TODAY'S FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Week 1: A. Organizing Content and Planning for Interactive, Content-Based, Contextualized Language Instruction. B. Making Block Scheduling Work! C. Incorporating the National Standards. D. Review of Second Language Acquisition

Week 2. A. Review of "Methods and Approaches in Language Teaching." A look at current trends/methodology/pedagogy in today's foreign language classroom. B. Effective planning: strategies, grouping, games, interactive activities, cooperative learning. C. Making Block Scheduling work! D. Integrating culture and authentic realia.

Week 3. A. Empowering the learner. B. Grading and its implications - records and reports of performance. C. Guidelines for grading students. D. Guidelines for communicating with parents. E. Parent/teacher conferences.

THEME B: STANDARDS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Week 4. A. Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21st Century. The Five C's of Foreign Language Education: Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, Communities

THEME C: ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF DIVERSE LEARNERS

Week 5. A. Special Needs learners. B. Gifted and talented learners. C. Accommodating native speakers. D. Inclusion learners. E. Learner styles F. Exploring Cultural differences/Teaching for Cultural Understanding

Week 6. Effective Planning Strategies for Diverse Learners

THEME D CREATING AND UTLIZING ALTERNATIVE FORMS OF ASSESSMENT

Week 7. A. Trends and implications. B. Multidimensional Assessment. C. Developing Assessment. PALS. Performance-based assessment. Moving beyond the text. Using technology. Student Self-Assessment. Authentic tasks and materials. Rubrics: Steps to Desig

Week 8. A. Alternative Assessment Characteristics. Self-Assessment. Assessing Processe Products. Multi-sensory Assessment for Diverse Learners. Learner-centered Assessments.

THEME E: DEVELOPING A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF TODAY'S FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEXTBOOKS

Weeks 10-11. A. Texts in use today. B. A Look Back to Formerly Used Textbooks. What's New and Under Consideration? What are the Trends? What is the Emphasis? C. Reflection of Methodology. Cultural diversity. Gender Equity. Multiple Learner's Needs Addressed. Special Needs Learners' Addressed. D. Use of technology and multimedia (video, CD Rom, Internet)

THEME F: EXAMINING, EVALUATING, AND INFUSING TECHNOLOGY INTO THE CURRICULUM

Week 12.. Technology preview

Weeks 13-14. A. Technologies in FL Instruction. B. Software and hardware. C. Use of Aut CD Roms.. D. The Internet. E. Key Pals. F. Web Sites.

APPENDIX B Re-designed Syllabus for EDCI 684

Course Description: This course is designed to equip pre-service and in-service teachers with tools needed to facilitate contextualized language learning. The tools include competency in theories of second language acquisition, integration of technology for enhanced language teaching and learning, and strategies for addressing the needs of diverse learners. Field experience, self-monitoring, and critical reflection are key aspects of the course that will be used to assist the course participants in integrating and implementing the content of this course into their own teaching in order to improve the instruction of language learners.

Course Objectives: As a result of this course, students will be able to:

- Engage in self-assessment by monitoring and reflecting upon his/her own learning through out this course
- Engage critically in the analysis of field-experience
- Plan and implement contextualized, standards-based classroom instruction that enhances language learning, addresses the needs of diverse learners, and integrates technology
- Analyze judiciously foreign language textbooks
- Articulate his/her rational for becoming a language teacher

COURSE SCHEDULE

Week 1. A. Introduction. B. Course overview. C. Review of Second Language Acquisition Th

Week 2. A. National Standards B. Contextualized language learning

Week 3. A. Diverse learners. B. Technology enhanced language learning

Part 1 – PLANNING FOR THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Week 4. National Standards and Block Scheduling

Week 5. Textbook Analysis

Week 6. Role of Technology and Needs of Diverse Learners

Week 7. Lesson Planning

Part 2 – INSTRUCTION IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Week 8. Instructional Methods

Week 9. Role of Technology

Week 10. Needs of Diverse Learners

Part 3 – ASSESSMENT IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Week 11. Traditional Assessment and Alternative Assessment

Week 12. ACTFL Performance Standards

Week 13. Role of Technology and Needs of Diverse Learners

CONCLUSION

Week 14. A. The profession of language teaching. B. Professional journals and organizations

C. Professional relationships with parents

APPENDIX C Course Self Evaluation for Professor EDCI 684 – Spring 2001

"Advanced Methods of Teaching Foreign/Second Languages in PK-12 Schools"

Part I: Opportunity to Learn Course Objectives

To what extent did you have the opportunity to learn the following course objectives?

Please circle your response using the 4-point scale adjacent to each objective

0	Did not meet the course objective	1	To a slight extent
2	To a moderate extent	3.	To a great extent

Course Objectives
1.Engage in self-assessment by monitoring and reflecting upon your own learning throughout the cour
2.Engage critically in the analysis of field experience
3.Plan and implement contextualized, standards-based classroom instruction that enhances langu needs of diverse learners, and integrates technology
4.Analyze judiciously foreign language textbooks
5.Articulate your rationale for becoming a language teacher

Part II: Assignments, Evaluation, Areas for Improvement

6. How might the course assignments be improved?

I'd like to devise a better strategy for reviewing the reading assignments.

7. What kind of formative evaluation have you used?

I use formal interviews, mid-semester evaluations, and occasional exit slips.

8. How have you used this? What did you do with this feedback?

I always go back and review this data as a means of informing any revisions to the course for the next semester.

9. How might this course be improved?

I would like to concentrate more on including information on FLES and immersion education.

CREATING AN INNOVATIVE ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN WORKPLACE PROGRAM

DAVID SCHWARZER, University of Texas at Austin
CLARENA LARROTTA, University of Texas at Austin
VYACHESLAV ZUB, Dnipropetrovsk National University – Ukraine

This paper was presented at the 2002 TEXFLEC Conference

The present paper summarizes a four-month-long preparation process to implement an innovative ESL workplace program (ESLWP) at a large university with a sizeable non-English speaking workforce in the United States. The reader will also find a proposed plan of action for implementing a program guided by constructivist views of teaching and learning a second language. The program was never tried, tested, or evaluated. However, the insights gained from the experience seemed valuable for other ESLWP designers. Following are the aspects related to the implementation of the program presented in this paper: theoretical principles; steps and guidelines; alternative assessment and portfolios; and implications for other ESL methods class instructors working in similar settings.

Introduction

The paper you are about to read summarizes a four-month-long preparation process to implement an innovative ESL workplace program (ESLWP) at a large university in the United States. Although the program was never tried, tested, or evaluated, the designers decided that some insights were gained from the experience. The purpose of this paper is to share with the readers the most important aspects of the four-month journey into the design of an ESLWP.

This program was meant to be the result of a joint effort of four parties: 1) the International Students Office on campus, 2) the Office of Human Resources, 3) the employees at the Food & Housing and the Physical Plant divisions, and 4) the instructor of the ESL graduate methods class. The International Students Office would provide a great service to the local community by offering its facilities to teach the classes. The Office of Human Resources would profit from this program since the project would fulfill the language training needed for the university employees. The ESL employees would clearly benefit from the program because it should help them improve the language proficiency level they need at work. Finally, the student-teachers in the ESL graduate methods class would benefit by acquiring and developing teaching skills including ESL in the work place.

According to Boiarsky (1996), many American schools have been incorporating some form of English for the workplace into the curriculum. Workplace English has been present in traditional course work through the introduction of work-related reading and writing formats (memoranda to supervisors, letters to customers, and proposals for improving company effectiveness) and by providing literacy skills needed in specific work environments.

The ultimate goal of the program was to equip the learners with appropriate language tools in order to become more effective language users in their workplace. So-mui & Mead (2000) reported that addressing the ESL employees' needs according to their workplace context should be compulsory for the designers of any ESLWP. They researched the workplace English needs of textile and clothing merchandisers who communicated in the international marketplace. They also presented the design of a curriculum that matched their population's specific workplace needs. More importantly, the types of communication that differed markedly from those included in traditional business English courses were identified and discussed.

As suggested by the above researchers, this ESLWP curriculum would address learners' needs in their daily work-routines. For example, workplace related language interactions and functions such as oral interaction with customers, reading the menu or labels of chemical products, and writing a letter or a memorandum would be addressed in the lessons.

Moreover, the present program was designed as an inquiry-based curriculum. According to Schwarzer & Luke (2001), "the inquiry cycle is a student-centered approach to teaching and learning which begins with students self-selecting or generating a question or set of questions about a topic that interests them" (p. 2). Students should be given the opportunity to choose the topics that they would like to explore, becoming the protagonists of their own learning. Accordingly, the role of the teacher should be redefined as a guide and a fellow inquirer in the learning process.

Following is a list of the stages of the inquiry cycle process (Short et al., 1996): building from the known: browsing, talking and listening; taking time to find questions for inquiry: wandering and wondering, experience centers, observing and exploring; gaining new perspectives: inquiry groups, in-depth researching, tools for inquiry, studio time; attending to difference: revision on inquiry, learning logs; sharing what was learned: inquiry presentations; planning new inquiries: group reflection, reflection portfolios, strategy lessons; and taking thoughtful action: invitation for action.

Lesson implementation would emphasize the integration and development of the five language skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing, and culture (Omaggio Hadley, 2001). However, Van Duzer (1997) recommended emphasizing one of the language skills, more than the others, depending on the students' language needs. In her work, she presented the factors affecting the listening process. She explained how these factors could have repercussions while trying to communicate in the workplace setting.

Following her advice, literacy acquisition would be the focus for the learning sessions in our ESLWP. The students would learn reading strategies to be able to understand written material from their workplace environment. The employees with children or members of an extended family with children would be encouraged to read children's books and to share reading experiences with children at home. Both learners and their children, would greatly benefit from this activity in the following manner: 1) The ESL employees would learn to enjoy reading, 2) They would also improve their reading comprehension skills, and 3) Their children would be provided with plenty of opportunities to be exposed to authentic and relevant literacy events.

In addition, in this ESLWP learners would engage with a variety of authentic written texts along with an exploration of several traditional second language basal readers (Lanteigne & Schwarzer, 1997). Finally, students' learning processes would be assessed through portfolios in order to provide insights into their achievements. Since this program was based on students' learning needs, the lessons would be approached from a holistic and a constructivist methodology. Consequently, alternative assessment seemed like the best choice available. In other words, assessment of the students' performance would focus on both process and product (Bell 2000; Noya & O'Malley 1994; McGroarty 1992).

Following is a description of the different stages of the development of our ESLWP: 1) Summary of theoretical principles for the design of the program; 2) Steps and guidelines for the development of the program; 3) Portfolios assessment as a central aspect to the program; and 4) Implications for other ESL methods class instructors.

1. Summary of theoretical principles for the design of the program

The theories that guided the design of the ESLWP were the following:

A. Definition of an inquiry-based curriculum: The curriculum should be an organizational device that teachers and learners use to think about their classrooms. It should be the means to discovery and learning about the lives they want to live and the people they want to become (Short et al., 1996; Whitin & Whitin, 1997; Schwarzer, 2001).

B. Curriculum negotiation: Typically, teachers, not learners, have made the important decisions about the learning experiences taking place in the class. Whitmore and Crowell (1994) introduced their concept of *symmetric power and trust relationships* between teachers and learners. They suggested that a negotiation of power between teacher and students is needed: Teachers trust and promote decision making from part of the learners in terms of curriculum implementatiowhile they determine the boundaries of the class negotiation. Students should be empowered in order to play a protagonist role in the decision making process.

C. Family literacy in adults' literacy development: Using children's literature in this ESLWP would help the ESL employees develop their emerging literacy skills while using authentic texts with authentic audiences. Reading books for the children in their extended family would both benefit the ESL employees as well as provide the children with rich literacy experiences. Children's literature is highly predictable since it uses repetitive language aided by illustrations. Based on the evidence from prior research (Flickinger, 1984; Smallwood, 1992), we decided to dedicate a big part of our literacy curriculum to children's literature.

D. Alternative assessment: Learning should be about change and growth. As teachers observe their students' progress and learning difficulties, there is room for students to evaluate their own learning (Schwarzer, 2001). Learners are multifaceted beings and they should be allowed to show their knowledge through different ways. Portfolio assessment (Noya and O'Malley, 1994) was intended to be implemented as an illustration of the alternative assessment focus of this innovative ESLWP. It was our opinion that the connection between the way learners are approaching knowledge and the way they are being evaluated should be coherent.

2. Steps and guidelines for the development of the program

This section is divided into two parts. The first part presents practical steps we found helpful in order to design and implement an ESLWP. The second part presents the guidelines we developed for the program. Nevertheless, we do not intend to provide the reader with a recipe to be followed, but with insights that might be transferred to other ESLWP situations.

Practical Steps for the implementation of the program

Following is the chronological account of the steps we suggest for the design of an ESLWP. Of course, a different order could be followed. We cannot generalize the procedure since the characteristics of each university and learning community are different.

***First**, create a set of guidelines for the program.* Remember to plan for a multi-level and multi-lingual group. Also, include activities dealing with the employees' routines at work. You might consider using technology and visual reinforcement. Finally, make literacy acquisition as the focus of the learning sessions. That is why it is important to collect and use specialized literacy material. Encourage the employees to read children's books and share reading with children at home.

Second*, design and conduct an informal interview with the prospective students.* This is one of the best ways to start negotiating course goals with the employers, the employees, and the instructors.

Third*, design and administer a placement test.* Before classes start, the prospective students should be tested to determine the level of language ability. We suggest that the testing session should take place on the first day of class, taking no more than 30 minutes for each student.

Fourth*, design and implement the actual program.* The program should be based on the employees' language needs. The program should be flexible to the schedules, needs, and interests of the employees. More importantly, it should be meaningful, contextualized, and authentic. The program should also promote collaborative work among the students and have a practical final test to give the students an appropriate sense of closure.

Fifth*, read current bibliography on the topic.* It is important to notice that this step is not intended to be the last. Reading and reviewing the current literature is one of the most important steps in the design and implementation of the program.

3. Guidelines for the development of an ESLWP

The following is a synthesis of the principles suggested by Yvonne F. Stapp (1998) in order to design a curriculum for ESLWP. Stapp believes that such curriculum should:

- be generated from a general theoretical ESP framework and the instructor will design a specific methodology and curriculum that fits the students' needs,
- Include employers' and employees' language needs and course goals,
- start with a description of the objectives for the course,
- establish a general pedagogical sequence to ensure language skill development and a logical organization of the technical material. In other words, it should be flexible but well-organized, taking into account the limitations of work schedules,
- include activities dealing with the employees' routines at work,

- make use of specialized literacy material from the workplace and make sure it is meaningful, realistic, and authentic,
- be a collaborative effort/product of employer, instructor, and employees,
- promote collaborative group work among the students,
- use accurate written/oral information,
- include varied teaching/learning techniques to help students develop the language skills (use of videotapes and audiocassettes). The instructor must plan for a multi-level and linguistically mixed group,
- provide visual reinforcement for the learning material,
- provide authentic communication,
- promote vocabulary, phrasing, and comprehension development,
- accommodate the various skill levels of the class,
- promote individual, pair, and group work activities, and
- have a "practical" final test.

Based on Stapp's suggestions, we developed our own set of guidelines that suited our program. Following are the guidelines we used in our conversations with the other university partners. Our ESLWP would:

1. focus on learners' needs in their daily work-routines such as language interactions and functions, interacting with clients and helping them, reading a menu from the cafeteria or labels of chemical products, etc.
2. target university employees for whom English is a second language
3. offer activities to develop the five language skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing, and culture,
4. address literacy issues in particular. Parents should be encouraged to read children's books and to share reading with their children at home. The learners and their children will both benefit from this activity,
5. focus on reading strategies for the ESL employees to enable them to understand written material from their workplace environment,
6. help the ESL employees learn to enjoy reading and to improve their reading comprehension,

7. explore a variety of authentic written texts along with a compilation of traditional second language basal readers, and
8. follow holistic and constructivist approaches; lessons would provide hands-on activities.

It is important to reiterate that every ESLWP has different characteristics. Therefore, the guidelines presented above should not be followed as a recipe. They are intended to be a model for other designers of ESLWP and to be adapted to their own needs and settings. Finally, the guidelines should result from the negotiation between the parties involved (See the appendix for the checklist we provide for implementing an innovative ESLWP).

3. Portfolio assessment as a central aspect to the program

According to Noya & O'Malley (1994), historically portfolios display samples of an artist's work to illustrate the artist's work quality, interests, and abilities. However, in education we must refine this idea for educational purposes:

> Although portfolios using the model developed in the fine arts may be appropriate for illustrating student work, the model must be expanded to accommodate informational needs and assessment requirements of the classroom. A portfolio used for educational assessment must offer more than a showcase for student products; it must be the product of a complete assessment procedure that has been systematically planned, implemented and evaluated. A portfolio is a collection of a student's work, experiences, exhibitions, self-ratings (i.e., data), whereas portfolio assessment is the procedure used to plan, collect, and analyze the multiple sources of data maintained in the portfolio (p. 1).

Noya and O'Malley (1994) also suggest that any portfolio should have five characteristics: a) comprehensive, b) predetermined and systematic, c) informative, d) tailored, and e) authentic. They propose a portfolio assessment model for ESL that includes six interrelated levels of assessment activities: a) identify purpose and focus of portfolio, b) plan portfolio contents, c) design portfolio analysis, d) prepare for instruction, e) plan verification of procedures, and f) implement the model.

Noya and O'Malley conclude their article by telling about the advantages and disadvantages of using portfolio in the language classroom. The advantages are: teachers' involvement in students' assessment is meaningful and active; portfolios promote serious discussion of criteria on what goes on in the classroom; portfolios link assessment to classroom activities; and assessment becomes a teaching strategy to improve learning. On the other hand, they point out validity and reliability as two weak aspects of portfolio assessment; the validation of portfolio procedures is costly and time consuming. Finally, portfolio implementation and assessment demand commitment, time, and effort on the part of teachers and school staff.

Padilla et al. (1996) also believe that:

"...The advantages of using portfolios are obvious. Portfolios provide students with opportunities to display good work, serve as a vehicle for critical self-analysis, and demonstrate mastery of a foreign [second] language" (p. 430).

Portfolio assessment is one instrument that allows teachers and students to reflect and negotiate students' performance in the classroom. It also provides students with opportunities to showcase growth over time and leads towards student-oriented teaching and independent students' work. As Moore (1994) states:

> Portfolio assessment and other authentic assessment procedures allow for self-directed work, self-correction, greater autonomy and greater time frames. Students can work outside the time constraints of the school timetable. Students are free to select topics in which they have personal interests, thus portfolios have the potential for encouraging greater motivation (p. 632).

Portfolio assessment empowers students as evaluators diminishing the value of "traditional" grades. It also encourages ESL employees to become critical and self-motivated language learners. Lastly, as an alternative method of assessment, portfolios fit best our interest for showcasing both product and process.

Contents of the portfolio:

As some authors (Padilla et al., 1996; O'Maley, 1994; Moore, 1994) have stated before, it is valuable for both teachers and students to establish some of the expected contents of the portfolios. As suggested by Pérez & Torres-Guzmán (2002), there are three main sections in a portfolio: a) written work such as initial and final drafts; b) audio- or video- tapes – of performance pieces such as students' oral reading and retellings; and c) other data and evidence such as students' self-analysis and critiques of items from peers.

Based on previous research on this topic, we decided to determine the following items as the compulsory table of contents for the portfolio in our program.

1. A **cover letter** that will contain basic information about the learners such as the name and a brief description of themselves as readers and writers.
2. A **table of contents** in order to register new items added to the portfolio.
3. **Required items:**
    - The list of books read to children at home.
    - Three tips about literacy development they would like to share with next year's students in the program.
    - Drafts of aural/oral and written products as well as revised versions.
4. **Optional items**: These should result from negotiation between teacher and students throughout the duration of the term. Following is a list of possible items:
    - Audiotaped versions of employees reading to children.
    - Role-playing dialogues based on workplace situations.
    - Evidence of peer review sessions throughout the term.
5. A **concluding statement** based on students' reflections and teacher-student conferences.

It is important to remember that the goal of our portfolio was not intended to be a collection of students' work, but rather a selection of it. Our purpose was to encourage students to select specific items to be included in their portfolio. Therefore, it was the teacher's priority to guide and lead the process. The portfolio was a compilation not limited to the students' best works and artifacts since their less successful items needed to be there for reflection and comparison purposes.

Implications for other ESL methods class instructors

This project could become one of the most exciting and useful projects for ESL methods instructors working at any large university with a sizeable non-English-speaking workforce and their graduate students. Although our particular ESLWP was never tried, tested, or even evaluated, the designers still believed it had great potential for other ESL instructors in their methods classes working in similar settings in the USA. The ESL graduate methods class could become a bridge between the university ESL employees' needs and the graduate students' needs. Following are some ideas we suggest in order to succeed in this endeavor:

1. Survey the needs of the local ESL community at your own institution. Contact the Human Resources Office and your local intensive English program for support.
2. Establish and design guidelines and goals that clearly explain the underlying philosophical and practical assumptions for your ESLWP.
3. Identify and make good use of available resources in order to integrate efforts and resources.
4. Review the current literature and see what insights can be transferable to your particular situation.
5. Start by interviewing ESL employees and find out what their second language 8/25/02needs are.
6. Remember that every ESLWP is unique. Therefore, expect to design or adapt assessment tools that fit your own program needs. Alternative assessments such as portfolios are highly desirable.

Even though the actual ESLWP did not take place, the designers learned a great deal about the key elements needed in order to implement such a program. It is our hope that some other ESL instructors working in similar settings as the one described throughout this paper find this account beneficial for their own practice.

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Appendix A Checklist for Implementing an Innovative ESLWP

- Do you use authentic materials for authentic purposes and with authentic audiences?
- Do you include authentic activities dealing with the employees' routines at work?
- Do you use specialized literacy materials?
- Do you negotiate the curriculum with the employees and the employers?
- Do you design the course goals with the input of the employers, employees, and teachers?
- Do you create environments that foster social construction of meaning?
- Do you plan for multi-level / multi-linguistically mixed groups?
- Do you promote collaborative work among the students?
- Do you assess students' products as well as processes?
- Do you have a "practical" final test?
- Do you teach the whole first and parts later?
- Do you use technology and visual reinforcements?
- Do you encourage students to take risks even if errors appear?
- Do you expose students to different local dialects of English present in their work environment?

AN "HERETICAL" METHOD FOR TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

ZEV BAR-LEV, San Diego State University

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This article presents an output-printed, lexically-based communicative teaching method. Specially designed to impart spontaneous speaking abilities for special students, etc., it is a possible solution to broader problems of foreign-language teaching. It is based on the assumption that acquisition-sequence is crucial to successful classroom-study — but an acquisition-sequence distinct from that of L1, and in fact best refined in the L2 classroom. It uses strict incrementation, with mostly ASYMMETRIC sequencing; and also a variety of SHORTCUTS, to ensure easy ways to say as much as possible, or OPTIMAL ERRORS, in cases where (as is inevitable) the learner cannot access the exact form while speaking.

The class progresses mostly in small-group study through four Study-Steps per lesson, covering an average of two speaking lessons per class-hour. The Study-Steps ensure successful study of vocabulary and patterns, finally forcing spontaneous speech. Special innovations are also used to teach skip-comprehension (comprehension when less than 50% of the text consists of known words). Teachers are here invited to do their own classroom experiments, using as few as two weeks of SILL before regular elementary curriculum, or applying INTERMEDIATE HANDOUTS.

INTRODUCTION

The "heretical" method to be outlined here is called "Sheltered Initiation Language Learning" (SILL): Both the name and the characterization go back to a review (generally positive!) of the method (Blair, in Celce-Murcia 1991), which said: "Its startling methodological assumptions, instructional procedures, and degree of success present a bold challenge to prevalent language acquisition theory. Future theories of formal language learning will have to account for the manifest success of SILL." It has been applied in the form of "mini-courses" of a half college-semester of study, with semester courses under development now, and a three-semester course taught in one language

(Hebrew) for over a decade. (Hebrew is a very challenging language, containing larger versions of the bigger problems of the more familiar languages, as well as special ones of its own.)

It was designed primarily to allow SPONTANEOUS SPEAKING ABILITIES (speaking abilities that are CONFIDENT, CONTINUOUS, CREATIVE, and COMPREHENSIBLE), especially under challenging circumstances: special-needs students (Learning Disabled, phobic, busy), LCTLs (Less Commonly Taught Languages), and even distance learning. Indeed it might be asked of teachers, even of Spanish, how many of their students, after the regular foreign-language requirement of three or four semesters, actually willingly use their foreign language in their daily lives. Certainly many students of Spanish in "top" programs make many of the same complaints that students have always made: too little speaking ability — and too much grammar.

On one occasion a researcher asked whether a technique designed to make results of classroom exercises better wouldn't delay the authentic use of the foreign language, and whether she would propose that the foreign-language requirement be stretched to ten years, since it makes no sense not to provide actually usable abilities within the time that most students actually study. The researcher responded matter-of-factly: Couldn't you say the same about all curriculum? SILL does everything possible to provide authentic language-abilities, usable abilities, within whatever time is available. In fact, one of its most heretical aspects is that it puts authentic use of language first (ignoring authenticity of text as such): Students speak independently (not via "pre-fab" conversations) from the first day of class, and their very first reading (and listening) comprehension exercises are done without glossaries.

Teachers will naturally wonder how such a strange method (the nickname "SILLy" has thus been used for it), even in the (no doubt unlikely) event that it has any advantages, can be integrated into mainstream curriculum. The answer is a simple one: The SILL claim is that it is especially useful as an initial method. As little as a few weeks (even two, although preferably 5-6) devoted exclusively to it at the beginning of study will produce benefits for students' abilities as regards not only speaking, but also for further study. SILL is specially strong on providing speaking confidence and ability to integrate needed grammar into speaking — including, for example, techniques for vocabulary study that could well be used by SILL-graduates to fill this gap in ordinary curriculum. While, of course, it is best to follow a SILL curriculum for as long as possible, it is very much better to follow it even for a few weeks and then to mainstream than not to follow it at all. Indeed, this article is intended, inter alia, to invite experimentation: Teachers might consider following up with such an experiment, following some of the suggestions given below.

BACKGROUND IN ACQUISITION THEORY

The main goal and assumption behind Sheltered Initiation Language Learning are the same as behind most or all acquisition-oriented (= "communicative") foreign-language teaching: the goal of spontaneous language-abilities, and the assumption of a natural sequence of acquisition of linguistic structures in acquisition. However, SILL makes a deviation from Natural Approach and other "input"-based methods in the use made of this assumption of a natural sequence.

Let us note a sort of contradiction in modern second-language acquisition, between acquisition theory and teaching. Certainly this contradiction is notable in the history of Natural Approach: In the beginning it was presented as a more or less completely "agrammatical" method, with students studying grammar optionally on their own; but at the University of California at San Diego in the program designed by Tracy Terrell, two out of five weekly lessons are devoted to grammar lessons. (There is a similar split in the way the originally comprehension-based method, accommodating a "Silent Period" of up to six months, gave way to initial speaking lessons to allow classroom communication.)

As acquisition theorists, we tend to speak positively about natural acquisition, including L1 children with their fascinating creative phonology, syntax, and lexicon, and Turkish guest-workers; but as language teachers, few of us would tolerate such poor speech from our students (and we would probably not last long as teachers if we did). Can anyone really imagine a first-semester French student saying Mwa do-do "Me sleep," or a Spanish student saying yo teta "I bottle" or Papi memé "Daddy sleep" while his teacher looked on like a proud parent? Modern teachers of these languages, no matter how tolerant, cringe at far milder errors.

"Natural" L2 acquirers often begin with the imperative, although it is a highly marked form: It sounds better to overuse the indicative than the imperative. (See discussion of SHORTCUTS below.)

Although we may officially believe in "natural acquisition," almost all of us manage somehow to teach vast amounts of grammar — and to work towards a far more accurate production than we often hear from "natural" L2 acquirers. One could even argue that the real goal of foreign-language teaching is rarely communicative competence as such, but communicative competence within the GOAL — Grammar, Orthography, And Lexicon — as expressed in the actual terminal examinations.

A similar contradiction exists between the assumption of a natural sequence, and the place of grammar in the class. While assuming a natural sequence, NA refuses to build the assumed acquisition-sequence into curriculum, believing that it must be acquired from "authentic" teacher-talk. At the same time, any textbook must contain some acquisition-sequence, in the form of an ordered sequence of grammatical topics (hopefully with exercises). NA textbooks are no exception. Should textbook-authors close their eyes when arranging these lessons, as if grammar were a Victorian taboo? To let the grammar topics emerge from situational topics is to follow the Audio-Lingual model. (This is what is done, and modern Communicative Language Teaching is very little removed from ALM in basic ways.)

In any case, it is the claim, from the perspective of SILL, that mainstream curriculum has greatly neglected the whole issue of grammatical explanation — and indeed of linguistic structure generally (with a major exception, to be noted below). SILL, while acquisition focused and communicatively oriented, focuses critically on issues of the sequencing and presentation of structures — grammatical, phonological/orthographic, and lexical.

It is widely assumed that L1 and L2 acquisition are parallel. The counter-claim has been argued elsewhere (bar-Lev 1966a), based on the published data and observations — observing that even in acquisition, adults are more grammatically aware and less flexible. Thus,they do not usually (if ever) go through acquisition sequences like went > goed > went that are typical of L1, much less use the kinds of structures that are typical of children.

To this we can add that, while immersion is a viable method to use with children for several hours a day, it is not at all so applicable to adults studying one hour a day. While an occasional teacher may be able to master both teacher-talk and classroom interaction successfully enough to induce acquisition in some students, other students are likely to be confused and/or intimidated, especially with more typical teachers. (Spanish teachers may get a week or two of orientation — perhaps or perhaps not enough to create good communicative teachers, but in LCTLs most teachers receive little or no training at all. A full course in teaching methods is rarely required before beginning to teach, even in EFL. Are we naive enough to think that a teacher can be "naturally" inspire the needed participation, especially with existing textbooks? Calls for teacher to free themselves from dependence on a textbook are rather unrealistic given the present levels of training.)

SILL is based on the OPTIMAL ACQUISITION SEQUENCE — but without the assumption that L1 and L2 are identical. Nor is it here assumed that the optimal L2 sequence can be derived by analysis of immersion speakers (such as Turkish guest-workers). And of course SILL includes languages for which the acquisition literature is minuscule or non-existent.

In SILL, the optimal L2 acquisition sequence may be initially approximated by what is known about L1 acquisition, in general or in specifics — but it is derived, ultimately, from classroom experimentation with the curriculum itself. SILL provides, in fact, a new model of classroom research — however, one which depends crucially on an understanding of it as a method: A pair of experiments to be mentioned below were done within this framework, showing crucial differences between L2 and L1 acquisition, albeit within the framework of SILL, which, as noted, is not immersion as such.

A good example of the "heretical" nature of the SILL approach involves the use of writing. An immersion-oriented methodologist is likely to think that any use of writing (whether standard spelling or some other, e.g. a phonemic spelling) is a distraction, a diversion from acquisition. (Others, on the other hand, might argue that learners with a visual "learning style" should not be forced to speak at all.) However, it seems obvious that most adults (perhaps anyone over 13) is, whether by maturation or education, visually oriented; even L1 illiterates (including L1 Chinese etc.) learning English often ask to see (and try to practice) how English words are written. When brief immersion lessons in Hebrew or Arabic are given to immersion teachers of Spanish, they can be seen quickly escaping from the principles of immersion that they impose on their students: They try to write down words in some sort of phonetic spelling (as well as asking each other for help in English).

In line with the goal of SILL, to teach spontaneous speaking abilities with whatever means are available, SILL provides phonemic spellings for all new words. In languages with ordinary spellings, this involves adding diacritics, etc., to the ordinary spelling, e.g. Spanish queso is spelled with a small, light u and a s superscript above the s, to prevent any student from thinking, even for an instant, that the word is pronounced kweezo. Some students can utilize such helps better than others, but at least an incorrect pronunciation is prevented; a second device turns out to be even more helpful in ensuring correct pronunciation from the beginning (see below). But at least learners are not forced into an artificial "blindness" by an assumed (but unproved) analogy with L1 learners. (Conversely, all SILL learners are forced, via special exercises, to overcome their bashfulness from the first moment of study. since, whatever the learner's "learning style," the "style" of the speaking-skill itself makes its own demands. SILL, instead of "lowering" the affective filter, breaks through with shouting exercises.)

Overview of Method.

A teacher can create steps towards helping students learn a langauge, but it is worth wondering whether the teacher can create the conditions needed for full acquisition to take place for most students, especially within a three- or four-semester language requirement. If not, then have we really progressed very much beyond traditional courses, which provided explicit knowledge of grammar and vocabulary but required additional time to produce proficient speakers who understood language in real situations.

SILL attempts to provide authentic language abilities, i.e. usable abilities, within whatever time is available. This first of all means the ability to speak, as noted;

secondarily it includes the ability to comprehend (aurally and in writing), as will be discussed briefly at the end.

The primary distinguishing feature of SILL is its emphasis on output. Its lesson structure is therefore lexical: Students are not presented with unanalyzed input, or even with sample conversations, as primary material for study, but rather simple lists of words, associated with grammatical patterns (first sentence-patterns, later inflectional patterns). The curriculum itself is simply the sequence of vocabulary and linguistic structures. Just one single sample of each pattern is given with each lesson, to ensure that the burden of creating discourse and thus of creativity is shifted from the curriculum to the student.

SPEAKING LESSONS

Sample lessons can be found at the first link on the web-site (http://www-rohan.sdsu.edu/dept/linguist/zevbar-lev.html). A single sample lesson is provided in the appendix here for convenience, along with the vocabulary covered in the mini-course exemplified. Each lesson consists of about 5 words, along with a single sample sentence. The first lesson as shown typically exemplifies the pattern X, please! with food-words (masculine in most languages). The second lesson on the web-site (generally the third lesson in an SILL curriculum) typically introduces narrative sentences, of the form The + person (male) + verb (intransitive). The third lesson on the web-site (generally the beginning of the second unit in SILL) introduces the first morphological pattern, often (as in Spanish) the pronoun "I" with its regular ending.

Each lesson takes about 15-20 minutes. Four or five constitute a unit that takes abouta week to complete. The narrative pattern quickly grows with the addition of objects and other complements, as well as more verbs and subjects. The third unit typically begins by presenting females, with feminine places and things then gradually introduced. (SILL starts with masculines in the Romance and Slavic languages, but feminines in German and Yiddish because these are simpler.) Unit D is often the unit to introduce "is, am, are."

The overriding methodological assumption behind any SILL curriculum is that of an OPTIMAL SEQUENCE of vocabulary and structures (syntactic, morphological, and phonological/orthographic). Classroom research, both formal and informal, are of primary importance. For example, at one point, a more L1-like ordering of verb-morphology was tried, by presenting the copula (in the main forms of the present tense) earlier than regular verbs. The result was a rapid decline in accuracy (which was easily counted, as well as obvious in their speech), as students began using copulas before verbs in Romance and Germanic languages (yo soy canta, ich bin singe) — an obvious transfer from English.

At the same time, teaching Farsi to two groups revealed that the copula and "have" must precede regular verbs in this language: The copula and "have" are the only two verbs that don't take the present-tense prefix mi- in Farsi, and it is better to introduce this prefix after presenting basic conjugation. Otherwise, learners have more trouble with the conjugation itself, as well as overextending mi-. These two experiments were referred to above, as showing the contrast between L1 and L2 acquisition in the present method.

SEQUENCING PRINCIPLES.

In general, reason has been found to invoke three different ordering principles, two of them ASYMMETRIC. Asymmetric ordering is similar to the "one at a time" principle (Lee & vanPatten 1995), but more far-reaching; for example, Lee & vanPatten do not introduce genders asymmetrically as SILL does (as noted earlier).

The primary asymmetric ordering is UNMARKED>MARKED, in which the more neutral, more general form is presented first, thus MASCULINE>FEMININE, and (for verbs in Romance languages) 3SG>1SG. Sometimes judgment is required to determine which is the unmarked form; the notion of OPTIMAL ERROR in this context, e.g. German (ich) singe "[I] sing" is chosen as unmarked because *er singe "he sing" sounds better than **ich singt "I sings" (the latter being a typical error in L2 Natural Approach, although not in L1 German acquisition). Generally, the goal is to mitigate for the predominance of optimal errors over non-optimal errors, e.g. *yo va is preferable to **él voy.

The opposite asymmetric order is available in special circumstances. For example, while está clearly "marked" vis-à-vis es, it is presented first in SILL. It is a riskier order, but useful in such special circumstances, to ensure greater accuracy. Whether *Yo soy en la oficina with the wrong copula is comprehensible is not crucial in SILL: The crucial fact is that considerable accuracy with estar/ser is possible with little effort (see next paragraph for an additional reason for this).

Symmetric ordering is also usable under special circumstances, to enhance accuracy; for example it is used in Hebrew for singular "you," in masculine and feminine forms, so as to mitigate in favor of neither being overgeneralized (although of course students will still make mistakes with this).

All these ordering are examples of the EXTREME INCREMENTATION demanded by SILL [illegible]y grammatical principle is allowed in the mini-course — as long as it can be expressed in a short sentence, and practiced extensively in speaking. One grammar-principle (or sometimes two) is allowed per unit, since it is only at this rate that most students can acquire it.

The early presentation of está is helped by another important teaching-technique: INNOVATIVE TRANSLATION. It is translated when presented as "is located," effectively preventing learners from overgeneralizing to its meaning as "is." The use of estar before certain adjectives is deferred for late in the first semester, just as, in general, different uses of any structure are separated for the sake of student comfort and competence, which happens to conform to L1 acquisition. It is not assumed that all students will master all subteleties: Some may simply resist regarding muerto as a "temporary" condition.

In drafts for masters theses, one sees L2 speakers of English having great difficulty mastering the/a: The Japanese have most trouble, while Slavs seem to master most but not all of the distinction. This is also a phenomenon where innovative translation can solve the problem far more than existing curricula do: the is translated as "this/that," and a is translated as "one." This simple technique obviates the basic confusion, and also prevents a typical error of Semitic-language speakers, namely using a with plural nouns. But this does not mean that L2 speakers of English can ever master all of the layers of usage, some of which might be difficult for a native speaker not acquainted with the specific domain of the thesis.

Study-Steps.

In each lesson, learners go through 3 special exercises (called "Study-Steps 2-4"): (2) Word-Quiz, in which the teacher (or a rotating student) quizzes students in vocabulary (using flash-cards or L1 cues) until all are "fluent"; (3) Pattern-Drill, in which students in succession make up their own sentences until fluent, following the sample given in the lesson; and (4) Free-Speech, in which students speak on one or two suggested topics. The suggested topics include "order food" for lesson 1, "tell a story" for lessons with narrative structures, and more specific (but still mostly "archetypical") topics later (when telling time, usually just with the number 3, 6, 9, 12, in asymmetric lexical sequencing, the assignment is to tell what people do at different times).

Each of Study-Steps 2-4 takes 5-10 minutes. Step 4 must be carried on with no corrections, in order to ensure that students are in fact practicing spontaneous speech. The purpose of Study-Step 4 is to ensure that students are in fact speaking on their own. Steps 2-3 can incorporate as much correction as the teacher wishes, so they are the main instrument of "quality control." In some contexts it is better to limit corrections to one per turn per student: In workshops for phobic adults, students may walk out when more is attempted. But certainly it is possible for a more accuracy-oriented teacher, especially in regular academic classrooms, to push for more accuracy. The only general rule is that correction must be done before, not during, Study-Step 4, so as to ensure confident, continuous, creative speech. (General feedback on fluency is allowed, but it is important not to turn Study-Step 4 into the all-too-typical typical post-mortem, so teachers must collect, not correct, errors that occur during this Step.)

"Study-Step 1" presents vocabulary via associations, such as "Kay so like CHEESE" for Spanish queso "cheese." These are far more effective than any other method (including oral practice, diacritics, and tapes) for ensuring comprehensible pronunciation. Almost all learners like them (sooner or later) — although most teachers hate them; in any case, learners who can't use them (e.g. because of a different L1) can easily by-pass them. They are the most noticeable aspect of SILL lessons, and a lightning-rod for critical comments — but, as implied here, a rather secondary part of the method, although admittedly typical of the no-holds-barred approach to teaching spontaneous speech. (It is vital for them to be prepared beforehand, although with intermediate classes in which this is not possible, they can be divided up for students to invent without massive waste of time.)

Other Aspects

Comprehension in SILL is taught in special SKIP-COMPREHENSION exercises, exemplified on the web-site (and in the appendix). The basic insight behind skip-comprehension is that the learner must learn to hear "not words but ideas" (in the words of one learner), and this means ignoring vast numbers of unknown words. In mainstream courses with input orientation, students do hear some unknown words; but there is no specific program to help them deal with problem of doing so, and they may later limit themselves to more comprehensible material. This is especially the case with the larger issue of authentic materials: While it is true that learners must ultimately deal with authentic materials, they must, more crucially, be able to deal with them in an authentic way. The "skill" of reading with a dictionary (even if learnable in three semesters) is of limited use in real life, and ordinary newspapers and magazines do not come with glossaries.

While in California schools reading materials are required to achieve a minimum recognition rate of 95%, in SILL the maximum recognition rate even at the beginning is 50%, so as to ensure that, however many words learners do or don't know, they will be used to dealing with new material in an authentic way. Vocabulary exercises and even sentence-by-sentence translation are allowed (although recommended for no more than 50% of readings) after students have read all they can on their own — but they must start with summaries and independent reading, without dictionaries or any teacher help.

How does the method "feel" in the classroom? The videos on the second web-site linked to the web-site cited give a good idea: They are minimally different from actual SILL classes, although shortened. They show the four Study-Steps for various languages, with the rhythm appropriate to them. Some teachers will find them mechanical, no doubt, but they do the job best that way, overcoming bashfulness while getting students into active participation; teachers should also look at the sample of how not to teach (which SILL teachers say makes them wince, as they recall how they used to teach).

INTERMEDIATE STUDY.

Most of the videos show elementary classes, to demonstrate the Study-Steps clearly. The intermediate speaking lessons are essentially the same — only much longer, because of review words and the much longer utterances produced. Hebrew videos #2 show such a later speaking class. The lesson was in no way simulated, and no parts are hidden. The speech is spontaneous, continuous, and enjoyed by the participants. It does exhibit errors, but is completely comprehensible, and exhibits personal involvement in content, as students accuse their classmate of stealing various things — including a boyfriend.

The Hebrew videos #3 show a small part of a skip-reading lesson — the initial part, in which students first find words they know (a small percentage of the total words), and then create a first tentative "summary" of the reading. This would be followed by small-group cooperative intensive reading, still without glossary, and then vocabulary study as a last step.

A major feature of SILL, especially on intermediate levels, is the teaching of SHORTCUTS.

Any teacher might ask: If I were to study a new language (say, Hebrew), whether out of idle interest or for a language requirement (the typical reasons for language study), would I want to learn all of the grammar with little speaking? Or even more relevantly: Should I want to learn it in such a way? Wouldn't I want to learn the bare minimum of grammar to express myself in spontaneous speech comprehensibly — and even somewhat accurately, to the extent that this would not interfere with speaking? Would I want to be so diligent about learning the future or plural or infinitive or imperative (all far more difficult than in Western languages) that I would frequently stop in conversation and ask about the correct form, or vacillate, or even just hesitate? Or would I want to have available a SHORTCUT that would allow me, when necessary, to avoid any of these without actual error (e.g. every + SINGULAR instead of PLURAL — or at least with optimal error?

How many tenses do I need to know — and how many can I actually master? There is no point to learning more than I can master, simply to fumble more and feel more guilty. If you suggest the "three main tenses," I would ask: What about the conditional, not to mention subjunctive? When needed, either of these is just as "crucial" to meaning as any other tense.

Nouns in Russian have six case forms (like the articles of German): Should anyone unable to master all six be ejected from Russian classes? For that matter, should the Japanese be disallowed to study English if they can't master the r/l distinction or articles?

The principle of ASYMMETRIC SEQUENCING actually answers this question definitively: This principle always forces SILL curriculum to start with a single form (whether an inflectional form, or a phoneme, or a contrasting vocabulary item), and build up others slowly, one at a time. Those who master 5 forms out of 6 will be more accurate than those who master just 2 — but even those who master only the first form will have the ability to communicate comprehensibly, via OPTIMAL ERRORS (in fact this is quite adequate for tourist purposes).

Every student will, at some point, have to "plateau" with respect to inflection, and to a lesser extent vocabulary. That is, they make a decision to speak more confidently with less than the native complement of tenses or case-forms. This is a reflection of the fact that no adult L2 learner can ever be like a native-speaker. Certainly it is most clearly true in the most important area: vocabulary. No L2 learner can speak spontaneously with the 15,000-20,000 words that native-speakers command.

It may be noted that the heavy speaking focus of elementary SILL cannot and should not be so intensively maintained through later semesters, so there is more room for abundant comprehension materials and even grammar. But to maintain and, especially, to expand the speaking abilities gained in the initial use of SILL, it is important to have 3-5 speaking lessons per week (depending on the language). A speaking vocabulary of about 1,000 words for Spanish is quite possible, with a thousand or more other words known well enough for comprehension — although not the several thousand words of mainstream courses.

Special INTERMEDIATE HANDOUTS have been developed for intermediate classes, to allow them to consolidate their speaking vocabulary, create their own "talking dictionary" lessons (conforming to SILL, but using other textbooks or word-lists as the vocabulary source), and using any texts as material for skip-comprehension. These handouts can be used to guide independent learning, using mainstream textbooks, at any curricular level beyond the mini-course.

EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH ON SILL

Doing controlled experiments is always a challenge — and never more so than with teaching method: The number of variables is obviously so large as to preclude meaningful direct comparison; the straightforward comparison of multiple classes is probably not a useful goal. In the past, experiments have been done them under less than ideal circumstances. After all, few enough teachers are interested in experimenting with new methods at all — especially a method, like SILL, that requires the teacher to operate in a new way.

Nevertheless, experiments have revealed some interesting patterns. Partly on this basis, it is claimed that SILL shows special benefits for "special-needs" students of various kinds, as well as special languages and special environments (such as distance learning, and especially course delivery via mechanical media). From these experiments, it is further claimed that it provides speaking confidence and command of grammar in speaking and better language-learning abilities as well as fun in learning for many students.

Just as important, they have allowed formulation of classroom experiments that do seem useful, as well as creating minimal disruption. Let us thus outline — and invite — a simple kind of experiment, which fits the recommendation for utilizing the method, for a teacher who wants to try it out, even without a formal experiment.

The class must be modified in the following way: Some initial portion of the course is devoted to the SILL mini-course. The maximum may be determined by the SILL courses available; the Spanish mini-course for example, is seven units long, which can easily be done in about 5 weeks of a standard college course. In any case, an absolute minimum of two weeks is suggested, whether for Spanish or any language, to see effects.

After the selected number of units has been completed in x weeks, the class should survey, within one week (or two), whatever part of the regular class textbook would have been covered in x+1 (or x + 2) weeks, with special emphasis on the most important structures (vocabulary and grammar) and communicative topics and tasks covered there. The SILL recommendation would be to continue with the textbook by adapting to the structure of SILL, as specifically described in the teachers' booklet; but the experiment can be carried out even if this is not done.

Students can be surveyed for their attitudes once at the end of the mini-course units, and again several weeks later. This can be any collection of comparative questions — or the form that have been developed (accompanied by a separate teacher's questionnaire for comparison).

The most interesting part of the experiment would be the test of actual abilities, which can be given just once, along with the second survey. The test should contain such standard parts as vocabulary (English-to-L2 translation, not multiple choice, preferably rapid (a maximum of 4 seconds per word), sentence-translation (again English-to-L2, but not rapid), and free speech, especially monologue — or free writing; a topic can be assigned, but it should be open, e.g. tell a story about X. A few students can be tested orally for the experiment, and all of them tested in writing for a grade — but free writing turns out to be a reliable indicator of speaking abilities (although of course most students will do somewhat better in writing).

The interesting aspect of this test is the assignment of the various elements to the mini-course vs. the textbook. While most of the vocabulary would probably overlap, vocabulary must be found that can be attributed to the mini-course only or to the textbook only; the same with structures, although this may be more difficult since in general the textbook will cover all structures covered in the mini-course (and others). In the free speech or free writing, the goal is to assign vocabulary and structures, however informally, to one or the other sources; this is often quite easy, although it is good to be ready for difficult choices (for example, by trying to assign each sentence "predominantly" to one or the other, with as few neutral cases as possible).

SUMMARY

Teachers and scholars are invited to try out such experiments, with or without more help from me. Almost any teacher is guaranteed to feel awkward when trying it out, perhaps for several times. But the results will begin to be apparent from the very first time. Two reactions of teachers may be helpful. It is worth noting that Hebrew and German are often taught far more traditionally (and grammatically) than Spanish or French, partly because of the more complex morphology of these languages (and in Hebrew the different writing system).

Here are some comments from teachers who have tried the method.

> *Before I learned to make the students responsible for producing and comprehending the language on their own, I thought this was a crazy idea. But now that I've learned it, I think: How stupid I was not to see! When I teach now, I don't hint and cajole to squeeze out the right answer. What's important is that the students are independent: They speak and comprehend and even learn on their own, without the hesitations and feelings of inadequacy that most students have in foreign languages.*
>
> (Alana Shuster, Hebrew teacher, SDSU and UCSD)

Another teacher made these comments:

> *Here's my three-week progress report on the Mini-Course: I am extremely pleased with the results so far. I think every student (except one) knows every word they've been taught — about 80 at this point; their performance on the two quizzes so far is astounding. They can write "short stories", some of which are truly coherent. Because they know the words, they feel empowered to use them, often in interesting ways. I am enjoying the class immensely (not often the case at elementary level). Attendance is nearly perfect, and normally fairly enthusiastic. I'm no longer a slave to a textbook.*

And a few weeks later the same teacher wrote:

> *I do like getting in the dative/accusative — location/destination distinction; it was a little rocky at first, but the better students now handle*

> *it with ease, something that my upper level students still stumble over hopelessly (and not a one of the beginners has heard the words "Accusative" or "Dative")... My beginning students [using the German mini-course] have much better speaking skills than the second-year students — no surprise for you! I'm slowing, trying to redo that course to truly emphasize speech, but they've been "scarred" by past experience (by me in some cases) and just can't get many sentences out.* (James Walter, German teacher, Ohio Northern University)

The last comment in particular reveals how SILL is in fact a fairly "grammatical" method; certainly it teaches grammar explicitly, albeit within very heavy restrictions. Basically, the implicit claim of SILL is that "communicative language teaching" (CLT) is too broad an approach to ensure successful teaching, especially with the wide variety of personalities and backgrounds of live teachers. CLT so often consists of broad philosophical pronouncements that classroom teachers often cannot carry out, especially with existing textbooks — especially when a traditional exam (such as the TOEFL) looms as the terminal challenge. Faced with a philosophy that seems to deprecate the teaching of vocabulary and grammar as such, many teachers will lapse into either hypocrisy or cynicism.

SILL provides the means by which both vocabulary and grammar can be effectively integrated into a speaking-oriented course. Where mainstream methods dump a confusing mass of words-in-context on students, and/or dump on them lists of 25-50 words for the next quiz, SILL teaches students ways to learn vocabulary: 5 words at a time; with associations, Word-Quiz, and contextualization in their own creative speech. These are techniques that students can use on their own, although it is best to devote class time to them for maximum success. The pace of 5 words twice per hour is adequate to achieve reasonable goals — although it must be admitted that students cannot acquire for speaking as many words as mainstream courses teach. SILL actually just specializes in a more modest range of vocabulary for speaking, leaving the rest for comprehension.

In grammar, too, SILL specializes in a modest range for speaking. While complete "coverage" of the usual litany is not possible, students will generally do well with communicative uses of language and even traditional exams, given the greater confidence they have from speaking CONFIDENTLY, CONTINUOUSLY, CREATIVELY, and COMPREHENSIBLY. Admittedly, they will succeed well enough partly because students, on an average, do not handle grammar very well even (or especially) if it is the focus of study; but isn't this the motivation for communicative language teaching anyway?

SILL allows abundant comprehension material, both from teacher-talk and from a standard textbook, and even abundant grammar, in the form of "pencil-grammar" as early as the second semester.

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APPENDIX A Samples from a mini-course

SSON A1: REQUESTS.

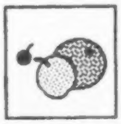
Words are the most important element in a new language. But learn to use them in the simple patterns taught here, starting with the pattern for requesting things.

A "word-play" is a silly sentence that connects the pronunciation of a new word with its MEANING. Say each aloud twice, visualize it, etc.	Learn to say each word fluently— whenever cued by its picture (or its translation).
the tailor drinks TEA;	teh
you and the boss are eating MEAT;	baSár
we preview the FRUIT;	pri
evacuate a shah, PLEASE.	vaqasháh

- Learn words thoroughly!

Make sure you know each word well enough to say it instantly whenever you want to—without any hesitation (much less hemming and hawing). Later, when you can already think in the language, even English translations written out can be a good enough cue.

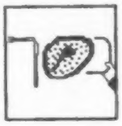
PICTURES FOR FLASH-CARDS



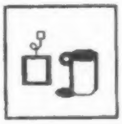
pri

cherry,
orange,
& apple

baSar



T-bone on tray
with knife & fork



teh

cup of tea
with bag

Now practice using the words in the pattern by making up your own sentences — and then talking on the given topics) and review. (after 6 weeks)

The form given for "please" is an abbreviation: It is indistinguishable from the full form (be-vaqas˙a™˙) in ordinary speech.

•The "Noisy Restaurant": Each learner shouts an order when pointed to. If you don't shout it loud enough to be heard, you have to repeat it louder!

sample for Pattern-Drill:

teh, vaqasháh! topics for "Free Speech":

Order something. (Stick to the pattern:

To order two things, use two sentences!)

Can you say each of the following words instantly? Practice until fluent.

Dad, doctor*, man, Mom, woman,	friend, teacher I, king, queen, you-Masc., you-Fem.	is singing* is standing up* is coming* resides*	is taking out* is buying* is drinking* sees*	meat, fish, chicken, rice, bread, milk garment,hat, dress, clock, watch	fruit, berries, apricot,tea , coffee,winemilk, bottle
this is, there there isn't any, there is	son, daughter, brother, sister, policeman, family,	is receiving* is giving* is eating* is wearing*	is speaking is working* is writing* is sitting*	cake, egg, flat-bread money, shekkel, hour 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 100, 1000	with, in, at, on from, to, of tomorrow in the future yesterday, in the past, was
Rebecca Sarah, Rachel Jacob, Moses, David	good*, new*, beautiful*, big*, kosher* rich*, sick*, strange*, alive*	garden, park, tree,market, bank,chair, car,bus,house café, school, party	book, newspaper, magazine gift,medicine map, joy, peace, war, quiet, luck	please, thanks, you're welcome yes, no, not hello, goodbye with joy	America, Russia, Israel, Japan Hebrew, Arabic, American, Israeli, Russian, Japanese

Can you say a sentence with each? Practice thinking of topics on your own by picking a word at random and saying 3-4 or more sentences using it. Practice the "Talkathon" often.

Write a short "story. Write as much as you can.. Give it a title and one-sentence summary in English.

A. Guests.

Use the context: Guests are asking for food and drink. You don't have to know how they're asking, just what they're asking for. Write down the word in English as you hear it.

1. atah yakhol lehavi' prusat baSar
   im atah panuy.

2. ani eshteh kos teh im zeh lo' yafri"a.

3. en lekha bamiqreh pri kolshehu?

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS: A COMPREHENSIVE RESOURCE LIST

FELECIA RADER, University of Texas at Austin

Professional organizations are an important part of one's academic career. They provide students and faculty the opportunity to connect with others in their fields of interest and attend conferences as well as provide resources for jobs and possibilities for publication. Organizations allow students to get their feet wet while learning about who is in their academic community.

Choosing which organizations to become involved is a personal choice related to research and academic interests. If there are journals that you enjoy reading, then maybe the first step would be to see what organization publishes that journal. Thinking about research interests is essential to choosing an organization that will have some value to you. One suggestion might be to get involved with a local chapter of an organization, then regional, national, and international.

This list contains most of the major professional organizations and is organized by topic. This is certainly not all of the organizations that exist and is not an endorsed recommendation or suggestion, it is simply a resource for exploring and becoming more familiar with the options for membership.

GENERAL

FLESA (Foreign Language Education Student Association at The University of Texas)

http://www.utexas.edu/students/flesa/

Pi Lambda Theta, International Honors

http://www.pilambda.org/

ACTFL (American Association for Teachers of Foreign Languages).

http://www.actfl.org/

WLU (Whole Language Umbrella) http://www.ncte.org/wlu/

The Whole Language Umbrella is an NCTE Conference made up of whole language support groups and individual professionals interested in developing and implementing whole language in educational institutions. WLU is based on a view of whole language as a dynamic philosophy of education.

AERA (American Education Research Association) http://www.aera.net/

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) www.aacte.org

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education is a national, voluntary association of colleges and universities with undergraduate or graduate programs to prepare professional educators.

Modern Language Association

http://www.mla.org/

ESL/EFL

The National Council of Teachers of English www.ncte.org

The NCTE is devoted to improving the teaching of English and the language arts at all levels of education. Since 1911, NCTE has provided a forum for the profession, an array of opportunities for teachers to continue their professional growth throughout their careers, and a framework for cooperation to deal with issues that affect the teaching of English.

NCTE's daughter groups, the Conference on College Composition & Communication

http://www.ncte.org/cccc/index.shtml/

TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) www.tesol.org

TEXTESOL III (Texas TESOL association)

http://www.textesol.region3/

LINGUISTICS

The American Association of Applied Linguistics.

http://www.aaal.org/

Linguistic Society of America www.lsadc.org

The Linguistic Society of America was founded in 1924 for the advancement of the scientific study of language. An interest in linguistics is the only requirement for membership.

READING

International Reading Association http://www.reading.org/

The International Reading Association seeks to promote high levels of literacy by improving the quality of reading instruction through studying the reading process and teaching techniques; serving as a clearinghouse for the dissemination of reading research through conferences, journals, and other publications; and actively encouraging the lifetime reading habit.

TexasIRA (Texas Reading Association) http://www.texasira.org/

TECHNOLOGY AND COMPUTERS

Society for Technical Communications

www.stc.org/

Association for the Advancement of Computing in Education (AACE) www.aace.org

AACE is an international, educational, and professional organization dedicated to the advancement of the knowledge, theory, and quality of learning and teaching at all levels with information technology.

CALICO www.calico.org

The Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium is a professional organization that serves a membership involved in both education and high technology. CALICO has an emphasis on modern language teaching and learning, but reaches out to all areas that employ the languages of the world to instruct and to learn.

International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) www.iste.org

Promotes appropriate uses of technology to support and improve teaching and learning. Representing more than 40,000 educators, ISTE provides: Curriculum for learning about technology and integrating it into the classroom.

International Association for Language Learning Technology

http://www.iallt.org/

IALLT is an ACTFL affiliate organization whose members provide leadership in the development, integration, evaluation and management of instructional technology for the teaching and learning of language, literature and culture.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

National Council of Organizations of Less Commonly Taught Languages (NCOLCTL)

http://www.councilnet.org/

The Norwegian Teachers Association of North America (NorTANA) http://www.stolaf.edu/depts/norwegian/nortana/nortana.html

American Association of Teachers of Turkic Languages (AATT) http://www.princeton.edu/~ehgilson/aatt.html

Association of Teachers of Japanese and National Council of Japanese Language Teachers

www.Colorado.EDU/ealld/atj/

Chinese Language Teachers Association

www.cohums.ohio-state.edu/deall/clta/

American Classical League

www.aclclassics.org

American Council of Teachers of Russian www.actr.org/

American Association of Teachers of Arabic

http://www.wm.edu/aata/

American Association of Teachers of French http://aatf.utsa.edu/

American Association of Teachers of German

www.aatg.org/

American Association of Teachers of Italian

www.italianstudies.org/aati/

American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages

http://clover.slavic.pitt.edu/~aatseel/

American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese

www.aatsp.org

NAPH National Association of Professors of Hebrew

http://polyglot.lss.wisc.edu/naph/

Association of Departments of Foreign Languages

www.adfl.org/

TRANSLATION

American Translators Association

http://www.atanet.org/bin/view.pl/181.html/

BILINGUAL AND MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE) www.nabe.org

The National Association for Bilingual Education is a national membership organization founded to address the educational needs of language-minority students in the U.S. and to advance the language competencies and multicultural understanding of all Americans.

National Association for Multicultural Education www.nameorg.org

The National Association for Multicultural Education (NAME) was founded to bring together individuals from all academic levels and disciplines and from diverse educational institutions, and other organizations, occupations and communities who had an interest in multicultural education.

REFORMA http://clnet.ucr.edu/library/reforma/

REFORMA has actively sought to promote the development of library collections to include Spanish-language and Hispanic oriented materials; the recruitment of more bilingual and bicultural library professionals and support staff; the development of library services and programs which meet the needs of the Hispanic community; the establishment of a national information and support network among individuals who share our goals; the education of the U.S. Hispanic population in regards to the availability and types of library services; and lobbying efforts to preserve existing library resource centers serving the interests of Hispanics.

Texas Association for Bilingual Education www.tabe.org

The Texas Association for Bilingual Education (TABE), founded in San Antonio, Texas in 1972, is a state advocacy organization for the rights of language minority children. The TABE network is comprised of local school district and universities student affiliated groups representing all major geographical regions of Texas.

National Association for Bilingual Educators

http://www.nabe.org/

OTHER ORGANIZATIONS AND SITES OF INTEREST

American Society for Training Development

www.astd.org/

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) www.ascd.org

ASCD is an international, nonprofit, nonpartisan education association committed to the mission of forging covenants in teaching and learning for the success of all learners.

Association of Teacher Educators (ATE) www.ate1.org

National, individual membership organization devoted to the improvement of teacher education for both school and campus-based teacher educators.

National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) www.ncate.org

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education is a professional accrediting organization for schools, colleges, and departments of education in the United States. They set national professional standards that help to assure quality in the preparation of teachers and other school specialists, and implement the accreditation process to determine which institutions meet the standards.

WorldTeach www.worldteach.org

WorldTeach in a non-profit/non-governmental organization created in 1986 at Harvard University with the mission of improving the quality of education in developing countries. WorldTeach sends volunteers to countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America who request assistance for their English education programs.

Joint National Committee for Languages - National Council for Languages and International Studies http://www.languagepolicy.org/

National Association for Self-Instructional Language Programs

http://www.nasilp.org

National Council of State Supervisors of Foreign Languages

http://www.ncssfl.org/

National Network for Early Language Learning

http://www.cal.org/projects/nnell.html

International Language Testing Association (ILTA)

http://www.surrey.ac.uk/ELI/ilta/ilta.html

Education Week on the Web www.edweek.org

The nation's premiere online educational newspaper of record. Their goal is "being the place on the World Wide Web for people interested in education reform, schools, and the policies that guide them."

ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics www.cal.org/ericcall/

Offers a variety of free ESL resources, including answers to frequently asked questions, Digests, Resource Guides Online, a question answering service, and access to the ERIC database, the largest education database in the world.

Office of English Language Programs -- U.S. Department of State http://exchanges.state.gov/education

Information about programs, services, and materials produced by the Office of English Language Programs, U.S. Department of State (formerly part of the United States Information Agency USIA). The Office, which has a staff of experienced English teaching professionals, works with press and cultural sections of US Embassies worldwide to assist with EFL/ESL teacher training around the world.

Iteachnet www.iteachnet.org

The gateway to k-12 international education and international schools, world-wide. Home of the International Educator's Network Association.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Special thanks to: Dr. Schwarzer, Dr. Moore, and the FLE students at The University of Texas for their input on professional organizations.

Texas Foreign Language Education Conference 2

Registration Form

Research Informing Practice: Encouraging Multiple Voices
March 21st-22nd 2003

You may register by completing this form and mailing it with your registration fee to the ad found at the end of this document. Early registration is $15 for students, $20 for public s teachers, and $25 for all other attendees. On-site rates are $35 for non-students and $2 students. The early registration deadline is (postmarked no later than) February 15, 2003. P send a check or money order. **DO NOT SEND CASH**. Make checks payable to: FLESA/Fc Language Education Student Association. Unfortunately, we cannot accept credit c Therefore, online registration is not possible.

Name: ____________________

Email: ____________________

Postal address

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Phone: ____________________

Fax: ____________________

Affiliation: ____________________

Please identify your top three areas of interest.

Applied Linguistics ____
Assessment & Evaluation ____
Language & Culture ____
Foreign Language Pedagogy ____
Literacy ____

Research Design ____
Bilingual Education ____
Language and Technology ____
Second Language Acquisition ____
Second Language Learners ____

Do you have any special needs about which you would like to inform us?

How did you hear about this year's conference?

Confirmation of receipt of this registration form will be sent electronicall you do not have access to e-mail, please include a stamped self-addre envelope along with this registration sheet.

Our Contact Information

Co-Chairs
TexFlec 2003
Foreign Language Education
D6500 SZB 528
University of Texas at Austin
Austin, TX 78712

Telephone: +1 512-471-4078
Fax: +1 512-471-8460
Email: TexFLEC@ccwf.cc.utexas.edu
URL: http://www.utexas.edu/students/flesa/texflec

Thank you for registering! We look forward to seeing you at the conference.

TexFlec 2002 Co-chairs

This form is found online at: http://www.utexas.edu/students/flesa/texflec/RegForm2.htn

Texas Foreign Language Education Conference

Submission Guidelines

Research Informing Practice: Encouraging Multiple Voices
March 21st-22nd 2003

Deadline: All proposals must be received by January 15, 2003 by 5pm

Proposals for presentations of papers are invited in the following areas: research de foreign language pedagogy, assessment and evaluation, language and culture, lang and technology, second language acquisition, applied linguistics, literacy, se language learners, and bilingual education. Our theme, "Innovations in Res Design and Foreign Language Education" is a call for new ideas in both research d and the examination of foreign language teachers and learners. Papers sh demonstrate an original component, challenging previous theories, method applications of foreign language research and education. The core goal of the confe is to encourage dialog by providing an open forum for idea exchange to pro progression in our field.

An ideal proposal will consider one of the topic areas mentioned above demonstrating originality in research design, the topic of research, or teaching peda It should be noted that traditional and non-traditional modes of inquiry (e.g. arts- research & action research) are acceptable. Preference will be given to creative innovative presentations.

Sessions will be 30 minutes long—20 minutes for the presentation and an addition minutes for discussion and questions.

General Guidelines

- The submitted abstract should be 1 page in length, 12 size font, double-spaced with 1" margins
- The title of the paper must be included with all copies of the abstract
- DO NOT include any identifying information on the abstract
- DO NOT include bibliographies or biographical data attached to the abstract. Abstracts will be submitted to blind review.
- Include a copy of the cover sheet with the proposal, but DO NOT staple them together.
- Proposals may be submitted in two manners-- by mail or electronically.

Submissions by Mail

- 5 copies of the proposal along with one cover sheet should be sent to TexFlec 2002 (see address below)

Electronic Submissions

- Follow the above general guidelines.
- Email Submissions to: TexFLEC@ccwf.cc.utexas.edu
- Type "TexFlec 2002 Proposal" in the subject line
- In the body of the message, include (1) the full names of the presenter(s), (2) t email address(es) of presenter(s), and (3) the type and version of the word-

processing program used (NB acceptable formats are MS Word and Corel Wo
Perfect).

- Download AND complete the proposal cover sheet from the following site an
attach this to the email.
(http://www.utexas.edu/students/flesa/texflec/SubmGuidelines1.htm)
- Attach your abstract as a second file. Follow the general guidelines regarding format.

Reminders:

- Please help us with the review process by adhering to the submission guidelin
- Abstracts must represent original, unpublished research.

Confirmation of receipt of proposals will be sent electronically. If you do not
access to e-mail, please include a stamped self-addressed envelope with the pro
sheet.

Contact Information
Telephone: +1 512-471-4078
Fax: +1 512-471-8460

U.S. mail submissions, please direct proposals to the following address:

TexFlec 2002
Foreign Language Education
D6500 SZB 528
University of Texas at Austin
Austin, TX 78712

Electronic mail submissions should be directed to the following address:
TexFLEC@ccwf.cc.utexas.edu

Thank you in advance for your submission. We look forward to reading your work!

Co-Chairs
TexFlec 2003

TexFLEC@ccwf.cc.utexas.edu
http://www.utexas.edu/students/flesa/texflec

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